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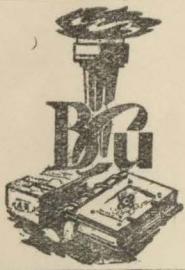
UNIVERSITATEA DIN BUCUREȘTI
FACULTATEA DE LIMBI GERMANICE

Lector dr. ANDREI BANTAS

ELEMENTS
OF DESCRIPTIVE
ENGLISH SYNTAX

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Lector dr. ANDREI BANTAS

ELEMENTS OF DESCRIPTIVE ENGLISH SYNTAX

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Prezentul curs este destinat studenților din anii II-III curs de zi și facultăților de limba română, limbi germanice, slave, române și orientale - având limba engleză ca specialitate B.

Prezentul curs a fost analizat în colectivul de catedră din 15 aprilie 1976 care s-a declarat de acord cu multiplicarea în actuala redactare.

P O R E W O R D

This book is a course of lectures in descriptive syntax, i.e. it offers a fairly comprehensive material regarding the status of relations between words in contemporary English.

It is destined for students who take English as a second subject and therefore need a solid grounding in the essentials of English grammar in order better to understand and use the language in teaching, in translations, in conversation and in other public and private situations.

For this purpose, these lectures in syntax are meant to reflect the rules prevailing in literary English in this century, together with part of the hesitations as well as contradictions, present in contemporary grammar books because linguists are confronted with variations and fluctuations of usage. The latter are particularly ample and compelling in colloquial British English - to say nothing of American English - and our Elements of Descriptive English Syntax naturally take into account those instances of laxity and those deviations from the rules and constraints which have greater currency in our times.

From this point of view, our course of lectures can be considered to a greater extent descriptive than normative or prescriptive. Occasionally, when this has been possible, certain explanations connected with logical, psychological or socio-linguistic motivation have been offered. At other times,

mere indications referring to the validity of certain forms and structures in different situational contexts are given. In the absence of a comprehensive work on the functional styles of contemporary English, including more extensive pictures of grammatical peculiarities in various registers of the language, we have relied on the indications present in traditional as well as contemporary grammars ¹, in the most "grammaticalized" dictionaries, - for instance Hornby's Advanced Learner's Dictionary - and in the books of usage - e.g. Hornby's Guide to Patterns and Usage, W.S.Allen's Living English Structure.

Moreover, proceeding from our own cullings from a number of books, newspapers, broadcasts, conversations, we have tested the validity of our observations and conclusions against many instances of written as well as spoken English, thus managing to acquire a clearer conception on many problems of usage.

Taken all in all, the conclusion has been forced on us that in many respects the English language - and English syntax more particularly - is far from being a fixed, ankylosed structure, on the contrary giving all signs of a continued evolution. The main trend of this evolution may at first sight appear as progress from rigidity to laxity.

Upon closer analysis however, it seems to us that several forms develop and come to run in parallel (which points to the ample grammatical synonymy of contemporary English) and - while all forms may be valid - one or several of

¹ Jespersen, Zandvoort, Kruisinga, Levičchi, Ilyish, Ganshina, Quirk (cf. Bibliography)

these forms are more adequate for one style or register of the language, though being unsuitable for another or for the other ones.

Seen in these terms, English grammar - and particularly English syntax - most probably requires us to teach more than one form at once, or, to put it differently, involves the necessity for extensive synonymy of grammatical forms. On the other hand, the mere juxtaposition of alternatives or of several possibilities would betray the purpose of teaching correct usage, unless sufficient and accurate indications of a stylistic nature are given. Otherwise, the quotation of several possible forms would resemble a dictionary of lexical synonyms listed without discrimination in point of meaning or register, of grammar and usage.

That is why, starting from the many-faceted criteria mentioned above, the syntactical phenomena described by us often appear not as a norm but as a multiplicity of solutions, with due indications for a motivated choice.

On the other hand, it is but rarely that we have resorted to hypothetical examples or solutions, and even less so to what is generally labelled as "incorrect" (although the evolution of such forms is unpredictable). The forms and structures which the present book mentions unfavourably are not condemned, but are rather shown in their true light - that is they are ascribed to a certain register of the language - e.g. highly colloquial, sub-standard English, pidgin English.

Nevertheless, varying attention is given to mistakes (classifiable or not) - which have been noticed in the kind of English used by Romanian translators, students, pupils etc. Their origin can be traced to Romanian structures in most cases - though occasionally the responsibility lies rather with preconceived ideas and wrong impressions of teachers or of the pupils themselves.

These empirical observations of peculiarities and mistakes in the English employed by Romanian have been analysed in the light of normative English grammars and have been given a much sounder theoretical grounding through the scientific gains obtained as part of the ample collective work involved by the Romanian English Contrastive Analysis Project.

For such reasons, as well as because of our older conviction that pupils and students learn more easily if they can make connections with their mother tongue - at least in the elementary and intermediate stage - the explanations, the terminology and the exemplification in this book rely substantially on comparisons with Romanian. Occasionally, references to the grammar of other languages are also made, but on the whole it can be said that these lectures reflect a Romanian's view of the English language.

This idea, underlying the entire course of lectures, has had several corollaries :

First, the elements of descriptive English syntax are to an almost equal extent theoretical and practical. The theoretical part involves descriptions and classifications, but mainly explanations and attempts at motivation. The practical

part reflects mainly the frame of mind of a person who has to translate his thoughts into English or to reframe English sentences casting them into the patterns of Romanian, without infringing the structure of either language.

Secondly, for various reasons (personal convictions, the urge to extend the students' background and better to ground their reasoning, the necessity to rely on all previous knowledge), connections are often established with morphology on the one hand, and, on the other hand, with suprasegmental phonetics and with stylistics. Thus, the picture is frequently broadened, involving points in other chapters of English linguistics, in the Romanian language, in general logic, etc. Without actually claiming an inter-disciplinary nature, the lectures nevertheless tend to elicit and challenge the student's mind on several planes, in order to ground and to round off a more comprehensive conception.

Thirdly, the intention is present at most times to make learners of English assimilate various possibilities of expression, to extend not only their knowledge of lexical synonymy but also that of alternative or parallel grammatical structures, with the view of enabling them to write and speak a better, more effective and more expressive English, while being permanently aware of Romanian equivalents. But, in this as well as other respects, indications are offered more often than not in order to avoid pitfalls in usage (in point of lexis, grammar, style). Moreover, as the lectures are far from exhaustive, they are meant to exemplify the mechanism of Eng-

lish grammatical logic, as well as a method for investigating the realities of languages. This facilitates discussions on various problems and from several angles, during the classes proper.

The attempt to attain such aims has entailed the necessity to offer students a most accessible material. The consultation of the lectures that follow has been facilitated by the adoption of a very easy terminology (for the most part traditional, while occasionally including several variants); moreover the terms are explained in many cases, and sometimes accompanied by their translation into Romanian or by the corresponding notions in Romanian grammar.

Similar considerations apply to the exemplification. Examples are taken from 19-th and 20-th century writers, from books of proverbs, from newspapers, from grammar books, etc. Some of the examples have been framed by us in keeping with the respective patterns, in order more poignantly and clearly to illustrate the respective situations, rules, constraints, etc. The criterion of accessibility has been observed throughout - as a basis for efficiency - and has been materialized also in the occasional translation of certain difficult words or of the examples as a whole, in order to ensure their correct assimilation.

Given the diversity of the picture offered by contemporary English - very much like contemporary Romanian and other languages - it has seemed to us impossible to adopt hard-and-fast prescriptions to be taught peremptorily, because,

as it is, both English-speaking people and English grammarians are far from unitary in using and in discussing the language. That is why, the Elements of Descriptive English Syntax are based on a rather elastic attitude also as regards the interpretation of the various examples offered. In most cases we have considered that the fundamental aim is to make the students conscious users of the language and - in their capacity of future teachers - modest but logical thinkers about the source language (SL) and the target language (TL), about the reasons of classifications as well as of usage, about the mechanism and the psychological motives underlying phonetic, grammatical and stylistic phenomena, as part of general or particular logic.

Note : With a view to brevity, certain graphical methods typical of English dictionaries have been used in this book too (especially for the exemplification) :

- Brackets () for words that may be omitted :
e.g., I went there (in order) to meet him.

- Slanting bars (/) for alternative words :
e.g., He went Northwards / to the North, to his native place / town / city.

- Double slanting bars (//) for similar but not identical variants :
e.g., He took a turn to the left // right.

I. INTRODUCTION TO DESCRIPTIVE ENGLISH SYNTAX

o.1. The purpose of the descriptive syntax of the English language is to identify and present the main patterns and structures of expression in contemporary English.

o.2. The lectures that follow are therefore a comprehensive analysis of the way English people nowadays think and express their thoughts in writing and in speaking.

We are concerned mainly with what constitutes those forms of general logic which are applied consistently by English people too, as well as with those special forms which can be considered peculiar to the logic of the English-speaking people.

o.3. Out of the various forms which may be seen or heard in parallel for expressing the same types of thoughts, our attention focusses mainly on what constitutes the bulk of the language, that is the majority of logical and linguistic units uttered or written by native speakers with a minimum amount of education, and at the same time understood by practically all speakers of English - natives or foreigners.

That is what can be called standard English - not just one register of the language, but rather a blend or an average (from the points of view mentioned above) including literary English, the English present in the majority of publications, and colloquial English, that is the slightly laxer kind of speech involving a certain informality, though not necessarily mistakes.

This register - or combination of registers - is more difficult to define in the case of English than in that of other languages, not so much owing to the great scope of slang (involving few grammatical peculiarities) to dialects (no longer important in point of grammar) or to pidgin English (which requires special studies, but is of little relevance for English as a whole), as owing to the American variant of the English language, nowadays usually called American English - as opposed to British English.

o.4. Given this diversity, just briefly suggested by the above remarks, a work of modest proportions like this one can hardly cover more than the average type of expression in English, that is standard English, half-way between very formal /stiff English and highly colloquial / familiar English. (Significant differences between such registers are usually pointed out here, while those in other registers are mentioned only rarely).

1.o. Out of the various definitions of syntax, for the limited and unambitious purposes of this course of lectures, we can be satisfied with an elementary one :

Syntax is that branch of linguistics which describes the phenomena of the contemporary language in point of relations between words and their correct arrangement in units of expression apt to reflect logical units and patterns.

Therefore, while morphology studies words and their changes in various situations and contexts, syntax describes the situations and contexts themselves, the relations between

words, deriving the principles, the rules and the patterns governing the arrangement of morphological elements as part of independent or connected sense-units.

As these units are meant not only for writing but also (or rather mainly) for oral expression, it is but natural for syntax to go hand in hand with some aspects of suprasegmental phonetics such as sentences stress, rhythm, emphasis and intonation.

1.1. As a matter of fact, given the progress of the sciences connected with communication and of the interdisciplinary subjects, the word syntax has come to be used - together with the word grammar - in order to indicate the (rules for the) specific arrangement of elements in various arts : poetry, prose, stylistics and even music and architecture.

Therefore, in a lato sensu interpretation, syntax can be seen as a set of principles, rules and indications governing the best arrangement of elements in the structure of communication.

1.2. Among the various disciplines and branches of linguistics, syntax plays the role of offering the structure of speech and writing which are most adequate for the communication of people's thoughts.

That is why, many of the notions and terms employed in syntax (as part of the grammar of a language or of all languages) are so closely connected with logic and philosophy ; some of them are not only the counterparts of notions and terms in those sciences but even identical with them (which may remind one of the great scholars in ancient times or at the time of the Renaissance who concomitantly studied - and

taught - mathematics, logic, grammar, music etc.)

1.3. Thus, since linguistics and psycholinguistics have proved that human thoughts are not articulate - that is they do not take a definite form - until they are embodied in words (even before they are uttered aloud or set down on paper) the concatenation between thinking and its materialized forms no longer requires demonstration.

Hence the interpenetration between logic (as the set of rules governing correct thinking and reasoning) and grammar (or rather syntax, which recommends the best models for the arrangement of words - we may say ordinance - in such a way as to facilitate the best expression of thoughts).

Linguistics itself cannot be seen either as independent (in the light of its being a reflection of logic) or unitary. The various branches of linguistics can be studied separately, but when thoughts are materialized in words and arranged in keeping with grammar rules, they have to be transmitted (as part of the process of communication which is studied by linguistics) either through speech or through writing. In the former case phonetics interferes (and syntax is closely connected with sentence stress, rhythm and intonation, while semantics has already had its say in the utilization of strong or weak forms, etc. and moreover influences sentence stress and emphasis). In the latter case, the rules of punctuation have to be applied (though they may differ slightly from one language to another and though deliberately "avant-garde" poetry and prose may violate them).

2.0. Before being expressed in the form of communication, thoughts are described by logic as sentences or propositions. When they are expressed in speech or writing, these propositions or sentences are analysed by syntax again as sentences or clauses (NB: In English the term "proposition" is not employed in grammar). Moreover, the main parts of the sentence will be described as the subject and the predicate in both logic and linguistics (cf. in this respect the introduction to the lecture on the subject).

2.1. Therefore thoughts (communicated or not) constitute themselves as logical units, materialized in a written or oral form, in keeping with specific rules, and grammar analyses them as syntactical units (that is semantic entities constructed in keeping with the rules of grammar). Moreover, so that these units may be analysed, interpreted and taught correctly, their structure has to be investigated through their decomposition into sub-units.

Since the basic syntactical units are called sentences, the syntactical subunits are necessarily called parts of the simple sentence (or clauses in the case of compound or complex sentences). As will be seen in the lecture on the subject (and as is already known from the grammar of Romanian or other languages), grammar books usually divide the parts of the simple sentence into main / principal (the subject and the predicate) and secondary (the attribute - which gravitates around the subject or, less frequently around the predicative, etc. - the direct, indirect and prepositional objects and the adverbial modifiers - which are closely or loosely connected especially

with the predicate).

2.2. The parts of the sentence can assume the form of words, as well as of word combinations, words accompanied by prepositions, etc. - all these being called phrases (= "locuțiuni"). According to the role they discharge in the sentence, - that is according to the word which they substitute for - phrases are called attributive, adverbial, predicative, etc.

3.0. Syntax is concerned mainly with the analysis of the complete logical units, which are therefore called syntactical units, or sense / semantic units. They can be classified in various ways, as will be seen in lecture II, devoted to this purpose.

Naturally, classifications attach much importance to criteria of form, but content preserves its importance in syntax too, since it is the essence of the communication which matters, and that is what syntactical relations indicate (also with assistance from phonetics and punctuation).

3.1. Grammarians who analyse the deep structure of the communication (the one which may not be perfectly formulated and anyhow not before its delivery) have proved that it may be expressed aloud or in writing in different and sometimes dissimilar surface structures. That is why the same trend of the communication may appear in the form of a declarative, of an (apparently) interrogative sentence, as an imperative or as an exclamation. (The most obvious example being that of requests or invitations which are most politely formulated as questions).

3.2 While the form of the communication may vary so

widely in point of structure or even in point of content, an even greater variation can be noticed in the nuances or connotations involved in each syntactical unit.

The trend of nuance or attitude (explicit or implicit) present in each communication reflects the speaker's/writer's outlook on the action or the situation discussed.

This way of looking at things may again be called by a term borrowed from logic, namely modality (cf. also the lecture devoted to expressiveness).

There are very many modalities, since there are so many types of responses to realities. Therefore, it is but natural for the means of expressing modality to be ample and diverse. Most of the means are studied as part of morphology - moods and modal verbs - but some of them fall within the province of syntax - types of sentences and clauses, modal phrases, etc. - while phonetics and especially intonation has a very important role to play in oral delivery. (Lexical means and punctuation may also contribute to indicating modality).

3.3. In fact, as has clearly been proved by phoneticians, - and as we can notice from our own experience - intonation can improve expressions of human thoughts especially as regards modality (giving them the finishing touches, as it were) while wrong intonation can spoil or ruin the meaning of a sentence (at worst also causing trouble by unpleasant implications etc.)

3.3.1. There is even a famous quotation in this respect namely that "words are the body of a language, but intonation

is its soul". That is why the interdependence between the correct structure of syntactical units and their right intonation cannot be overlooked. Learning and applying the adequate intonation for the various types of syntactical units is indispensable and we can easily understand that unnatural, incorrect or inexpressive intonational contours may spoil the meaning of a sentence, and in any case deprive it of its inherent modality.

Although to a smaller extent (because writing can hardly be as expressive as speech), punctuation also has its function in rounding off the correct image of human thoughts - which warrants it a place among our preoccupations.

4.1. Emphasis is also one of the many modalities involved by human thought, and it has various means of expression - on the lexical, morphological, syntactical and stylistic planes. But this course in syntax, like books of phonetics for instance, has to discuss mainly the normal, non-emphatic expression of human thoughts. Emphasis being a peculiar kind of expression - an important modality but just one of them - stressed / emphasized therefore "marked" forms of expression are treated whenever the necessary arises, while various comments and the final remarks are devoted to emphasis and other modalities.

II. THE CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES

o.1. It is a foregone conclusion that since speech and writing are the expression of articulate thinking, utterances and written sentences will be the materialized forms of thoughts (either complete or partial).

Taken all in all, it is safe enough to assert that articulate thoughts (in the field of logic) find their expression in sentences or propositions (terms which have their origin in the same field of logic) and take the oral form of utterances (in - suprasegmental - phonetics). Language and its component elements (phonemes, morphemes, words, phrases, grammatical rules, structures, patterns, etc.) are the materials and means employed by human beings in order to embody their thoughts.

o.2. Seen in this light, the expressions (written or oral) of human thoughts are part and parcel of communication and may express different trends or purposes of the communication, and on the other hand may assume a variety of forms. That is why the traditional manner of classifying notions - in point of content and in point of form - assumes the following aspect when we differentiate the linguistic expressions of thoughts.

o.3. I. Classification in point of trend or purpose of the communication / in point of modality / manner or the speaker's attitude (therefore a matter of content) ;

II. Classification in point of structure (of the communication)/of composition (therefore a matter of form) ;

III. Classification in point of status or grammatical dependence.

NOTE : All types or subtypes of sentences identified in any of the three classifications can be subdivided into positive and negative, without special mention being made of it.

1.o. Thus, the first classification proceeds from the trend or essence (or nature, content) of the communication (although usually it is preferable to begin with a formal classification) because it is more general than the other classifications. Indeed, the discrimination of sentences according to the purpose / intention / attitude of the speaker or writer is primordial and can apply to all the subdivisions separated under the incidence of the other classifications. To put it differently, we may have short or long, extended, elliptical etc. sentences (or clauses, for that matter) which are all declarative or exclamatory etc. So, the structure of a declarative or interrogative sentence is a less important matter - for theoretical or practical considerations - than its basic trend or purpose.

1.o.1. From the point of view of trend - which means semantic as well as logical and psychological content - sentences are normally divided into : Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative and Exclamatory.

So, it is a matter of the fundamental attitude which

the speaker / writer adopts towards his / her communication. In this matter, we are going along with professor Levițchi and other grammarians, in considering that any communication - even statements (which is an alternative name for the declarative sentences) does reflect or reveal an attitude or modality

1.0.2. Combined studies in semantics, grammar and phonetics do seem to point to the conclusion that modality is present in one form or another - explicit or implicit - in all communication. To put it differently, there is hardly any sentence but involves a certain degree of participation, a certain standpoint adopted by the speaker / writer. Seen in these terms, any assertion, however factual - general or particular, made with the help of the Indicative Mood (generally considered free from any modal implications, though Latin and other grammars range it on a par with other modes = expressions of modality) reflects an attitude : namely, in this case the assertive attitude, or certainty, or conviction (explicit or implicit) or finality. All these may be conceived - in the light of this approach - as being on an equal and even similar plane with any modal sentence. A comprehensive list of modalities includes certainty, finality, in parallel with doubt, possibility, impossibility, probability, etc. and we also know that modality can be expressed in various ways - by morphological means (moods, modal verbs, modal phrases, etc.), by syntactical means (emphatic constructions, etc.), by lexical means (adverbs, etc.), by phonetic means (especially emphasis, doubt, humility, apology, etc.), by stylistic means (inversion,

etc.), some of them being connected with the distinctions between declarative and interrogative, imperative or exclamatory.

NOTE : On the other hand, perfunctoriness (i.e. lack of concern / participation / interest) is rendered by the same "Tone of indifference" - Low Rise or Tone I Low - in all types of sentences.

1.1. Declarative sentences are also called statements (in grammar as well as in phonetics, rhetoric, etc.) as they are used in order to affirm, declare or state something (positive or negative) usually without emotional implications that is without affective participation - and denoting certainty, conviction, etc., though their variations and diversity are immense. They normally end in a period or full stop and are uttered in the "Tone of Finality / Decision" - (High) Fall or Tone I High.

e.g., It is at least three weeks since his last visit / since he last came here (and he hasn't phoned either) (, if I'm not mistaken) (, unless he called when we were in the country) / (, which I very much regret) / (, though we all miss him a lot),

(That is a simple, a compound or a complex sentence, with or without a modal tinge)

I shall / will(certainly) give him a piece of my mind (, if/ when I meet him) (, so that he may know where we stand / lest he should blunder again) (, although he seems to be beyond hope) (and I shan't / won't mince words either) - (Idem)

I'm sure he has read the paper / He must have read the paper (, or at least he has by all means heard the news from somebody) - (Idem)

NOTE : The assertive attitude underlies declarative sentences, irrespective of the speaker's / writer's belief in the truth of the respective sentence. Therefore, whether he knows his statement to be the truth or a lie, he gives it out with seeming conviction. In phonetics, however, uncertainty or deceitfulness may come to the surface through the utilization of the fall-rise (hesitating) tone, in spite of the speaker's will - depending upon his ability or inability to disguise his thoughts.

1.1.1. Declarative sentences usually resort to the Indicative Mood. Their degree of assertiveness depends on the presence of strengthening or emphatic adverbs, e.g., "certainly", "undoubtedly", "doubtlessly", etc. (and in this case modality is even more obvious) or on the contrary of adverbial modifiers denoting doubt, probability, etc. - e.g., "probably", "perhaps", "maybe". Conviction - sometimes without proof or material support - may be expressed also through the modal verb "must" - also followed by the perfect infinitive, with reference to past actions - the modal verb "will" - indicating a high degree of probability etc.

1.1.2. For the arrangement of words in positive or negative statements, cf. the respective section in the lecture on word order.

1.2. Interrogative sentences are expressions of the speaker's / writer's curiosity and so their form follows the

standards corresponding to that modality or to its sub-divisions or associations. Therefore, there are certain requirements in point of word order (cf. the respective section in that lecture) and the tones adopted depend on the sub-divisions described below.

Thus, for various purposes, interrogative sentences are usually sub-divided into a) general, b) special/particular, c) alternative and d) disjunctive questions. (cf. also Note under 1.2.5)

All of them normally end in a question mark.

1.2.1. As is well known, general questions are those which refer to the truth of an entire sentence, and so the answer which they expect may be just one word - usually the adverbs "yes" or "no" (or a corresponding gesture) and that is why they are also called in a familiar / elementary way "Yes or No questions".

General questions are the typical reflection of genuine / pure/unmingled curiosity, being also called "straightforward questions" that is having no implications whatever. They, as well as interrogative repetitions are normally uttered in the tone of genuine curiosity (high rise) - which in English appears as a continuous, uninterrupted rise in pitch (stronger upon the nucleus or nuclei) unlike Romanian intonation, which includes a drop in front of the main rise at the end.

e.g. , Must you really go ?

Is it raining ?

Have you heard the news ? (Straightforward question)

He has called on you (did you say) ? (Interrogative
repetition)

Can you tell me when he left ? (Straightforward
question with a subordinate direct object clause -
indirect question)

Has mother come ? Was it late ?

1.2.1.1. Word order in general questions involves
partial grammatical inversion, that is the removal of the
auxiliary or modal anomalous finite to place 0 in front of
the subject (cf. the Lecture on word order).

1.2.2. Special or particular questions refer only to
one / to a specific part of a sentence / statement, so that
they do not expect mere confirmation or denial but a definite,
precise answer. This justifies their above-mentioned name,
while the fact that they begin with an interrogative pronoun
or adverb (most of them having as initials the letters "Wh")
justifies their familiar / elementary designation - "Wh -
questions".

The arrangement of words for expressing special /
particular questions is described in the respective section of
the lecture on word order. In point of intonation, they
follow the same pattern in English as in other languages, -
the descending one called "fall tune" - perhaps a little more
marked in English.

Between interrogative proper and interrogative - ne-
gative sentences, the pattern differs only in point of word
order (cf. that lecture).

1.2.3. Alternative questions, that is those based on the presence of several possibilities or of one alternative at least, are necessarily subdivided into a) limited/finite, which offer a definite set of possibilities (namely two or perhaps three) and b) open/unlimited, whose meaning is that the number of possibilities is larger than those listed.

1.2.3.1. Limited / finite alternative questions have the nature of a "closed list" or of a "limitative" enumeration - that is one which exhausts all possibilities - and therefore the intonation pattern is made up of (n-1) sense groups uttered with the Low Rise tone (for showing continuation) + 1 sense group uttered as a Fall (for showing the end of the list). The word order pattern does not change.

e.g. , Does he work ,nights, or`days ?
Do you prefer ,cash or`cheques?
Whom do you love more - ,mummy or`daddy ?
Will you have ,tea or`coffee ? (= there is
nothing else in the house)

1.2.3.2. Unlimited / open alternative questions have the nature of an "illustrative / exemplifying" enumeration and the fact that the list is left open is marked by a High Rise in the intonation of the last element of the set - after (n-1) Low Rises - suggesting further possibilities, not mentioned explicitly.

e.g., Shall we go there on ,Monday or`Tuesday ? (or when ?)
What will you have, Sir, ,whisky, or ,brandy,
or`gin ? (or something`else ?)

Will they put up at the 'Athénée Palace, or the
'Intercontinental ? (or where ?)

1.2.4. Disjunctive questions have the same logical pattern in the languages we discuss, that is a statement followed by a question (genuinely or just politely / formally asking for its confirmation), the question normally having the opposite trend / direction than the statement : a) positive statement followed by interrogative-negative question, b) negative statement followed by interrogative-question proper), as is shown in full detail in the respective section of the lecture on word order.

e.g. , a) You caught the evening train, didn't you ?

This is your younger sister, isn't she ?

You can come tonight, can't you ?

b) It hasn't rained, has it ?

He oughtn't to be late, ought he ?

You won't forget, will you ? (In fact a request)

For further details cf. coordination (in the lecture on the compound sentence) and word order in disjunctive questions (under 2.4 in the lecture on the order of words).

1.2.5. Note. Analysing the problem in terms of the connection between context and speech, Roger Kingdon (The Groundwork of English Intonation - section J { 103) also discusses the following types of questions, graphically similar to the previous ones, yet differing in their intonation :

a) - Questions asking for repetition, for which the

speaker uses High Rise (Tone I High) in order to make his interlocutor repeat (part of) what he said before :

e.g. , 'What (did you say) ?

'Where's he going ?/'Where did you say he was going ?

"How much (did you say you wanted) ?

Therefore an (emphatic) rising intonation is used instead of the falling one normal for particular questions.

b) - Interrogative repetitions, in which the speaker again uses High Rise (Tone I High) - possibly with particular emphasis on some word - in order to make sure he has heard correctly (a statement, question etc. which astonished, shocked him etc.) :

e.g. ; You[^] told him to 'come ?

Has[^] Henry 'seen them ?

c) - Insistent questions - in which the speaker uses (Emphatic) Fall (Tone II High) in either general or particular questions for which he emphatically demands a (specific / definite) reply :

e.g. ; Has[^] John came ?

Did they[^] all go ?

But[^] where is it ?

But[^] when did they come ?

d) - Quizzical Questions - in which the speaker resorts to Rise Fall (Tone IV) in order to mark his doubt, irony, mockery, etc.

e.g. , Are you[^] really sorry ?

[^] Can't / [^] couldn't you help me ?

How many [^] more do you want ?

As is easily seen, the various nuances of stressing and intonation (sometimes rather subtle) are independent of word order - though in (b) the latter is not suited to the interrogative, very much as in other colloquial sentences.

1.3. Imperative sentences include commands proper (given a final or very final / categorical / imperious intonation - the Fall or High Fall tone) or requests, (usually given a pliant, agreeable intonation - namely the Fall-Rise tone) or invitations (usually given the same intonation as requests but polite enough even when the categorical / final tone - Fall - is used). Usually they end in an exclamation mark.

e.g., 'Come !

'Shut up (, please) !

(Please) Bring them along tonight ! (,please)

Let's 'hurry !

Don't forget me !

'Never 'count your 'chickens before they are
'hatched !

'Let me 'think - yes, now I remember perfectly!

Read a little 'louder, will you ?

NOTE : It is common knowledge that the most polite invitations, requests and even suggestions are formulated as questions of the types : "Would you mind sitting down ?", "Shouldn't we better postpone it ?" , "Shall we discuss it

over lunch ?", "Won't you stay for dinner ?" etc.

1.3.1. The ellipsis of the subject in standard English, its presence in colloquial English and other aspects of imperative sentences are explained in greater detail in the sections on the subject and on word order. As their very name shows, imperative sentences - whether commands, requests or invitations - are the proper field of application of the imperative mood. Moreover, phrases, phonetic emphasis and lexical means may also be employed for denoting the corresponding modality.

1.4. On the other hand Exclamatory sentences are naturally the proper field of application of those modalities which are more clearly connected with our emotions. They denote either attitudes which we may call "positive" or even "superlative" (such as admiration, enthusiasm, joy, surprise, happiness, satisfaction, exultation, elation, etc.) or, on the contrary "negative" ones (such as horror, terror, disgust, dissatisfaction, disappointment, regret, sadness, grief, etc.) The means for expressing such a wide range of feelings will of course differ substantially, though the patterns display many similitudes : the order of words is practically the same, exclamatory sentences usually beginning otherwise than declarative sentences, - with adverbs, pronouns, etc. on place 0 - (cf. word order) inversion is frequent (cf. the respective lecture) and sometimes they may include an oblique mood - that is an analytic form of the subjunctive, mainly with should . It is but natural that they should end in an exclamation mark.

1.5. It is to be noted that as regards all types and sub-types of sentences, whether positive or negative, a strong connection is present throughout between grammar and phonetics or, more specifically, between syntax and suprasegmental phonetics (sentence stress and intonation).

Therefore it may be asserted that this classification is of great importance for choosing the adequate word order, intonation and punctuation apt to convey our meaning as well as our attitude.

2.0. The second classification, the formal one, refers to the way thoughts are expressed, that is it is made in keeping with the outward appearance which they assume - whether destined for utterance or for writing.

As is but natural, out of the various possibilities to classify sentences (as resulting from the bibliography) we incline for the one which proceeds from simple, indivisible, unitary notions, to ampler, more complicated ones.

Therefore, we prefer the classification in point of structure / composition / form which distinguishes three main types of sentences :

2.1.(A) the simple sentence, that is the sentence which expresses just one thought at a time, by means of one predicate (or main focus / nucleus) between two punctuation marks that are destined for separating thoughts - or between two conclusive pauses in the speech chain, indicating the beginning of a new utterance and its end. Simple sentences can be further subdivided, as will be seen in their detailed description (in lecture III).

2.2.(B) the compound sentence (in which the word compound is employed in the sense of homogeneity / similarity / coordination / equality) that is a thought which includes more units than one, placed on an equal footing. In syntactical terms, the English compound sentence corresponds to the notion of "frază (compusă) prin coordonare" that is a sentence made up of two or more clauses (= propoziții coordonate), which discharge the same function and are connected between them with or without the help of coordinating conjunctions. (Their description and subdivision from this point of view, as well as the notion of coordination are dwelt upon in the lecture on the compound sentence).

2.3.(C) the complex sentence involves the notion of "complex" in the sense of diversity / non-homogeneousness / inequality / subordination of the various component elements. In purely syntactical terms, it corresponds to the Romanian "frază (compusă) prin subordonare" that is a unit of thinking made up of one or more main / principal clauses (= propoziții principale) and one or more subordinate clauses (= propoziții secundare / subordonate). (Their further description, together with the explanation of the notion of subordination, and details about the several possible levels of subordination, are dwelt upon in lecture on the complex sentence).

2.4. Moreover, the reality of speech and writing confronts us with situations in which both coordination and subordination are present in the same syntactical unit. Such sentences may be called compound - complex (if coordination occurs at the first level, that is between the main clauses

on one or several of which depend(s) the subordinate clause(s)) and, vice-versa, complex-compound (when there is first subordination and then coordination at the second level, that is between the two or several subordinate clauses) but on the whole they are covered by the theory and analysis of complex sentences.

3.0. Sentences can also be classified in accordance with their status (of dependence or independence) or in another formulation in point of (content and) grammatical dependence, that is in terms of their position as regards other syntactical units. This classification, however, is rather intricate, because it brings into play all three types of sentences classified in point of structure, or rather simple sentences as such (or independent clauses, as part of a compound sentence) and the non-homogeneous components of a complex sentence - the subordinator(s) and the subordinated.

It is in fact a matter of government, of equality or of juxtaposition / total separation and the difficulties increase when it comes to equivalating the various classes in other languages (cf. in this respect the points on terminology under 4.0 below). In point of status or degree of grammatical dependence, sentences are classified into :

- a. independent sentences (isolated) ;
- b. independent clauses (as part of a compound sentence) ;
- c. main / principal / head clauses (in complex sentences) ;

- d. regent clauses (as part of a complex sentence, in case there are two degrees / three levels of subordination) ;
- e. subordinate / secondary clauses (again as part of complex sentences).

3.1. Independent sentences are in fact simple sentences, their name differing only function of the angle from which they are viewed : in this case not structure / composition, but relative status / condition / situation.

e.g., It is 8 o'clock.

You will have to rush to your office.

If linked by conjunctions, independent sentences become (more or less) independent clauses (in case of coordination, as part of a compound sentence - e.g.: It is 8 o'clock and you will have to rush to the office), while in case they are placed in a hierarchy, they turn into main clauses, subordinate clauses proper or regent clauses - e.g.: It is 8 o'clock and so you will have to rush to the office, unless you want to be late again.

3.2. Independent clauses are the complete elements or units which are brought together in a closer connection as part of the speech chain, without, however, being dependent upon each other or upon anything else (in point of meaning or of grammatical relationships). They preserve their equal status, and their "hypothetical" independence can at any time be proved, through replacing commas or coordinating conjunctions by full stops, without their full sense being altered.

3.3. Main clauses, also called principal or head clauses, are the elements that rank first in the hierarchy established as part of a complex sentence, that is they have in their subordination both secondary / subordinate clauses and regent clauses - in case the latter are present. (Notice that while subordinate clauses display great variety, main clauses are limited in their variability, being usually statements, although questions, imperatives or - less frequently - exclamations occasionally do appear as main clauses).

3.4. Regent clauses have the intermediate position (explained at greater length in the lecture on the complex sentence) that is they have the ambivalent / twofold / hybrid nature of governed and governing at the same time, when the stratification / hierarchy within the complex sentences is more diversified. They behave as subordinates to the main clause(s) while governing the subordinate clause(s) proper.

3.5. Subordinate / secondary clauses, with the functions known in all languages, are an indispensable element of complex sentences : the very notions of complex sentence (= heterogeneous, unequal) and of main clauses are impossible without the existence of subordinate / subservient elements.

Their government by main or regent clauses is the principal area where the rules of sequence of tenses manifest themselves.

4.0. The useful and as often as not indispensable comparison with Romanian inevitably requires our perfectly understanding the equivalence of terms, which we present in

the following form (summarizing in fact all the above) :

<u>Romanian</u>	<u>English</u>
<u>propoziție</u> independentă/simplă	independent/simple <u>sentence</u>
<u>propoziție</u> independentă coordonată (în cadrul unei fraze compuse prin coordonare)	coordinated independent <u>clause</u> (as part of a compound sentence)
<u>propoziție</u> principală (în cadrul unei fraze compuse prin subordonare)	main/principal/head <u>clause</u> (as part of a complex sentence)
<u>propoziție</u> secundară/sub- ordonată (idem)	subordinate/secondary <u>clause</u> (idem)
<u>propoziție</u> regentă (idem)	regent <u>clause</u> (idem)
<u>frază</u> (compusă) prin co- ordonare	compound <u>sentence</u>
<u>frază</u> (compusă) prin sub- ordonare	complex <u>sentence</u>
<u>locuțiune</u> gramaticală	grammatical <u>phrase</u>
<u>expresie</u>	idiom, idiomatic <u>phrase</u>

Or, vice-versa :

<u>English</u>	<u>Romanian</u>
<u>Sentence</u>	
simple/independent	- <u>propoziție independentă/simplă</u>
compound (two or more independent clauses)	- <u>frază compusă prin coordonare</u>
complex (one main clause or more + one or more subordinated clauses)	- <u>frază compusă prin subordonare</u>
<u>Clause</u>	
independent	- <u>propoziție independentă (as part of a "frază compusă prin coordonare")</u>
main/principal	- <u>propoziție principală (as part of a "frază compusă prin subordonare")</u>
subordinate	- <u>propoziție secundară/subordonată (idem)</u>
regent	- <u>propoziție regentă (idem)</u>
<u>Phrase</u>	- <u>locuțiune gramaticală (adjectivală, prepozițională, conjunctivală, circumstanțială etc.)</u>

III. THE SIMPLE SENTENCE - Generalities,
Classifications

1.0. The typical syntactical unit, with great frequency and enjoying the qualities of conciseness and clarity usually required for conversation, orders, sign-boards, suggestions, indications, information etc. is the simple sentence, the one which conveys the informative elements of communication as separate units.

Usually, in conversation and in a sort of primary, non-scientific conception, people consider simple sentences to be reduced to two words at the most (for instance the subject and the predicate). The truth is, however, that although the subject and the predicate are the essential parts of the sentence (in logic as well as in the grammar of many languages - those which do not evince the frequent ellipsis of the subject) in fact most sentences (oral or written) contain supplementary elements. Truth to say, conversation, writing, etc. would be poor enough, if sentences were made up only of these main elements.

1.0.1. Grammars propose the following subdivision of simple sentences :

1.1.a) Simple unextended sentences (= propozitii simple nedezvoltate) made up only of the traditional main parts of the sentence - the subject and the predicate.

e.g., He has come. She is asleep. Mother wouldn't agree. Jenny was working.

1.2.b) Simple extended sentences (= propoziții simple dezvoltate) made up of the main parts of the sentence - attribute(s), the direct, indirect and/or prepositional object, adverbial modifier(s) or some kind or another etc.

e.g., Not very long ago he used to come here almost daily.

At three o'clock yesterday, the cabin with its passengers crashed into the river below. New and old newspapers, books, cigarettes, matches, pencils and what not, were lying in a litter on the not very clean floor.

1.3.c) Elliptical simple sentences (= propoziții simple eliptice) characterized by the absence of a part of the sentence which is otherwise considered essential or even indispensable - the subject or the predicate, for instance.

e.g., Care for a walk ? (= Vrei să ne plimbăm ? - through the ellipsis of both the auxiliary "do" and the subject of the sentence)

Got a match ? (= Aveți un foc ? - like the previous sentence, this form is of very frequent occurrence in colloquial English)

Nice to see you ! (Ellipsis of the introductory subject it and of the linking verb to be , achieving precisely the effect of prominence for the predicative, which is envisaged when utilizing the introductory

anticipatory construction).

Delighted to have met you (Ellipsis of the subject and of the linking verb, with emphasis on the predicative).

1.3.1. Elliptical sentences are peculiar especially to colloquial conversation (men, as we realize from English and American literature, seem to be fonder of elliptical expression than women are) and to stage directions e.g., "Goes to table L." (= left), "Crosses to sofa C." (= centre)

Further information is supplied in the lecture on the subject and in the chapters on the article in grammar books.

1.3.2. When elliptical sentences are used very frequently, they may become a mannerism which as a matter of fact used to be en vogue especially with fin-de-siècle fashionable young men.

(e.g.- Wilde's Importance of Being Earnest - 1895- though judging by the speech of Mr. Jingle in The Pickwick Papers, 1836-37, it seems the mannerism had begun earlier).

1.4. d) One-member sentences (= propoziții mono-membre) which include just one element, sufficient however to express something, to convey the gist of an idea, the essential of some communication unit. As nominal elements usually prevail in one member sentences, these are sometimes called "nominal sentences" (= propoziții nominale)

e.g., I went in. Darkness. Silence. Smoke.

I went out. Rain. Drizzle. Fog.

The streets were empty. Nobody in sight.

Not the shadow of a ghost. Darkness all around.

(Adverbial modifiers - perhaps with an attributive function - are employed here to round off the atmosphere ; note also that the nominal element may be compound - a nominal phrase).

1.4.1. Such sentences may occur either in literature or in some oral narrative, if it is related in such a way as to enhance stylistic effects - e.g. to enhance suspense. In literature, some of the most famous examples are culled from Dickens :

e.g., Silence between them. The deadly statistical clock very hollow. The distant smoke very black and heavy. (Hard Times, Chapter XV; In fact a number of elements are present, but they discharge essentially the same function in the sentence - circumstantial or adverbial).

2.1. In point of frequency, it is easy to notice even by the most superficial analysis that the bulk of oral or written communication is made up of simple extended sentences because on the one hand unextended sentences cannot communicate a substantial / sufficient amount of information (moreover the stylistic effect of their frequent occurrence would be too depressing) while on the other hand elliptical and one-member sentences are limited in their frequency because of their narrow spreading in only two or three

registers of the language.

2.2. As regards the arrangement of words in the simple sentence, see the lecture on word order.

THE PARTS OF THE SENTENCE

IV. THE SUBJECT

Preliminary remarks

o.1. In logic, judgments (propositions / sentences) are usually divided into two main parts - the subject and the predicate - which are essential to any complete thinking - and which correspond to the principal parts of the sentence in syntax. In grammar, roughly speaking, we may say that the subject is the element under discussion, while the predicate is the element which says something about it. Considering things in this light, we can very easily apply the formula which Romanian studies in English owe mainly to Professor Levițchi, to the effect that the role of the subject is usually anaphoric, that is limited to reminding one about the topic of the discussion, narrative, etc., while the role of the predicate is much more important, namely bringing new elements concerning the problem discussed - a role which may be labelled as epiphoric. With other authors - especially the Prague School - we find the same conception expressed in different terms : the subject of the judgment is described in a functional view of grammar as the theme, while the predicate is described as the rheme, that is the novel element, the vector of the more substantial, informative part of the communication.

o.2. To put it differently, the subject is the element which in most cases is known to the listener and, as

is but logical, English sentences usually begin with this element, that is they proceed from something which is already known to something which is yet unknown. If the subject is not known, if it is introduced for the first time, we usually find that English people move also this element towards the end of the sentence, where most of the emphasis falls. In such cases, English people resort as often as not to an introductory subject, a sort of temporary substitute or "lieutenant".

o.3. Such situations can be illustrated by the contradiction between what seems to be the subject, especially considering the usual order of words in English, and what actually is the subject. For instance, if we revert to the debate around the famous quotation "To be or not to be, that is the question" and if we apply the sidelights on grammar which are provided by phonetics and by the analysis of broader, situational contexts, we immediately find that the emphasis cannot logically be laid on the word "question", because it is not part of the predicate, as it may seem, but the subject (that is the question preying on the speaker's mind is whether life is worth living or not).

o.4. In much the same way, if we compare the pair of sentences :

I. George is a 'good' boy or George is a 'good' boy (Subject = George)

and

II. 'George is a 'good' boy (Subject = a good boy, because it can be rephrased as : "A good boy is George")

we find that they answer different questions : the first answers such questions as Who is George ? or What is George ? or Is George a good boy ? - with the usual answer Yes, he is because George is the issue under discussion, whereas the second sentence answers such a question as Who is a good boy ? referring to a different context, for instance one in which we discuss the good boys in a class, etc.

Therefore, although formally identical, the two sentences presuppose a different context and require different translations - which will be indicated by the context and, when spoken out, also by intonation,

- I. George e (un) băiat 'bun or E băiat 'bun George (ăsta) /
George e băiat 'bun / 'bun băiat.
- II. (Un) băiat bun e 'George or Uite, 'George e (un) băiat
bun.

o.5. Generally speaking, such problems of differences in translation, determined by the actual purport of the sentence, arise also out of the fact that the subject is almost always present in English sentences. This is due to the almost total loss in inflexions in contemporary English and creates difficulties for the translators into languages whose structure is different, - for instance Romanian in which the presence of the subject (especially when repeated or when expressed by a personal pronoun) seems incongruous or clumsy, if it does not moreover bring about unwarranted emphasis. For instance, it is easy to imagine how clumsy and, in the last analysis, incorrect, would sound the

translation of the following quotation from Browning, if all the pronouns were retained in the Romanian translation :

Had I said that, had I done this,

So might I gain, so might I miss.

Might she have loved me ? just as well

She might have hated, who can tell ?

Where had I been now if the worst befell ?

o. 6. So the subject is customarily expressed in English sentences, the two main exceptions being : 1) most imperative sentences, in which case the absence of the subject is the specific indication for the utilization of this mood (e.g., Take back the hope you gave ; try and test it !); 2) the second important exception is provided by elliptical speech and here again difficulties arise in translation because the subject being seldom expressed in Romanian, we must look for other means in order to point to the stylistic device of ellipsis. (Less important cases are mentioned in section 5 "Peculiarities of English usage").

o. 7. To sum up this introduction, the conclusion is inherent that we should not leave English sentences without subjects - and on the other hand, that we must refrain as far as possible from rendering English subjects expressed by personal pronouns into Romanian, in order not to create a gulf between our maternal language and the language of translations, to say nothing of avoiding undesirable emphatic effects.

x x x

1.0. Definition

If we try to define the subject, we reach the following formula agreed upon by most grammarians who have attempted a definition :

The subject is that principal part of the sentence which shows who/what performs the action expressed by the predicate or to whom/to what a feature or characteristic expressed by the predicative is ascribed.

By and large, the subject is therefore that part of the sentence about which the predicate states something.

1.1. The subject answers the question who ? or what ? as in the following quotation from Browning :

You gave a score of years to art - (Who gave ?)

But in music we know how fashions end !

(1/ Who knows ? 2/ What ends ?)

2.0. Ways of Expressing the Subject ^{x)}

The subject can be expressed in various ways:

2.1. By a noun in the nominative case, which may be :

2.1.1. a common noun, (with or without noun determiners or modifiers (Noun Phrase = NP)

e.g., The blood replenished me again

My last thought was at least not vain.

Since nothing all my love avails

My whole heart rises up to bless your name

In pride and thankfulness! (Browning)

x) Most examples in this lecture are excerpted from Robert Browning's poems or from books of English proverbs.

Every ass loves to hear himself bray (English proverb)

This category includes all kinds of nouns, concrete or abstract, verbal nouns or substantivized adjectives:

e.g., Beauty is but skin-deep

A blind man will not thank you for a looking-glass

Comparisons are odious

Enough is as good as a feast

Come day, go day, God send Sunday (English proverbs)

Riding's a joy

My riding is better, by their leave (Browning)

2.1.2. By a substantivized past or indefinite participle :

e.g., The dying do not care about this (Wilde)

The accused were charged with theft.

2.1.3. By a proper name (possibly accompanied by a determinative or modifier) :

e.g., Martin was not angry (J.London)

Young Laertes, in a riotous head

O'erbears your officers ... (Shakespeare)

The Miss Dodsons had always been thought to hold up their heads very high (G.Eliot)

Blathersville wants a Nicholson pavement (M.Twain)

2.1.4. By a fixed group of words, indicating the

title A) of a work (literary, musical, artistic) or B) of an office, enterprise, institution etc., both A and B therefore referring to single notions :

e.g., The Prince and the Pauper is a fine story
by Mark Twain.

Three Loves was one of Cronin's early novels
Heart of Darkness is experience too (J.Conrad)

2.2. By a pronoun of various kinds :

2.2.1. personal pronoun :

e.g., I claim only a memory of the same, and this
beside
If you will not blame, your leave for one
more last ride with me (Browning)

Note : The personal pronouns with a generic or impersonal function will be treated separately.

The personal pronoun may be emphasized in one way or another :

e.g., Have you yourself what's best for men ?
What if we still ride on, we two,
With life for ever old yet new. (Browning)

2.2.2. Possessive pronoun :

e.g., This book is yours, mine is at home.

2.2.3. Demonstrative pronouns :

e.g., And that's your Venus ...
What does it all mean, poet ? (Browning)

2.2.4. Interrogative pronouns :

e.g., Who knows but the world may end tonight ?
(Browning)
What atones ?

Who goes there ? (Sentry's password)

Who more busy than he that hath least to do ?

(English proverb)

2.2.5. Relative pronouns :

e.g., Whence we turn to yonder girl that fords
the burn ! (Browning)

2.2.6. Conjunctive-relative pronouns :

e.g., What will be will be (Dickens, Hard Times)
Who looks not before, finds himself behind.

(English proverb)

2.2.7. Indefinite pronouns, which may be subdivided
into quantitative (the prototype being much - e.g.: All is
not gold that glitters !) and numerical (the prototype being
many, more, most, several).

e.g., Some people are wise and some are otherwise.

All lay load on the willing horse.

(English proverbs)

2.2.8. Generic pronouns, which may be subdivided
into :

a) absolute - such as one, you, thou (archaic)
everybody, everyone, anybody, etc.

Still one must have a bliss to die with (Browning)

You can't get blood (or water) out of a stone.

With Latin, a horse and money, thou will pass
through the world (English proverbs)

b) limited - such as they :

e.g., They scratch his name on the Abbey-stone
(Browning)

2.2.9. Negative pronouns :

e.g., None knows the weight of another's burden.

Nothing is impossible to a willing heart.

Nothing succeeds like success.

(English proverbs)

2.2.10. Numeral pronouns :

e.g., Five (of them) were present.

2.3 By a numeral, which may be :

2.3.1. cardinal:

Where one is wise, two are happy (English proverb)

2.3.2. ordinal :

e.g., Françoise Sagan's third novel was not considered up to the mark, but the fourth revived all hopes.

2.4. By an infinitive with or without additions (complements) :

To promise and give nothing is comfort to a fool.

To scare a bird is not the way to catch it.

(English proverbs)

Won't do them any harm to cool their heels a bit. (J.Galsworthy, Strife)

2.5. By a gerundial construction :

e.g., He said that bringing home that trout had saved him from a beating (Jerome K. Jerome)

2.6. By any substantivized part of speech :

Yesterday will not be called again.

Almost and well-nigh save many a lie.

(English proverbs)

- 2.7. By a group of words whose nature may differ widely
(e.g., including a nominative + infinitive - cf.
3.2.4)

Not a soul was anywhere visible.

The not being troubled with earnestness was a
grand point in his favour (Dickens, Hard Times)-
a rather rare agglomeration of words.

- 2.8. By a subordinate subject clause :

What is worth doing is worth doing well.

What may be done at any time will be done at no
time.

What is sauce for the goose is sauce for the
gander. (English proverbs)

2.9. Note : Before passing on to a classification of
subjects, we ought to mention certain peculiarities of con-
temporary colloquial speech, in which we perceive a deviation
from the rule which requires the subject to be in the nomi-
native :

a) a form which is accepted by many grammarians - the
use of me instead of "I" in answer to the question
"Who's there ?"

b) a form which is not yet accepted by grammarians but
is very extensively used : "My sister is four years older
than me".

c) a form which has practically no justification and

is used by very few people so far : "Who did it ?" "Us did it"

3.0. Classification of Subjects

Subjects are apt to be classified from two points of view :

A. From the point of view of their semantic content/ value - i.e. the amount of meaning which they convey ;

B. From the point of view of their composition, i.e. according to the criterion of structure and form.

3.1. Classification of Subjects in Point of Content

According to the criterion of content or semantic value, subjects may be 1) grammatical, 2) logical or 3) impersonal.

3.1.1. Grammatical subjects, also called formal or apparent subjects, directly connected with the predicate and therefore usually determining agreement between the latter and the subject :

Since now at length my fate I know

Is this your sole praise from a friend ? (Browning)

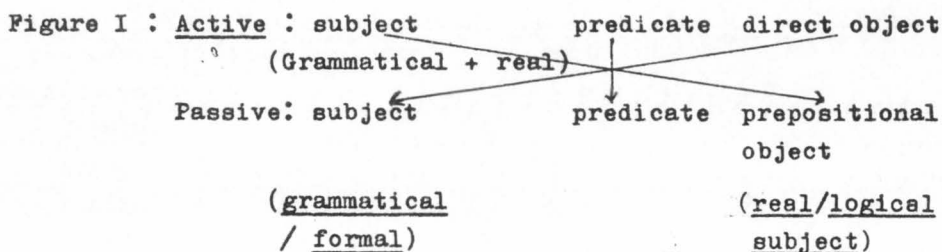
3.1.2. Logical or real subject, which points to the agent, that is to the real author or doer/performer/perpetrator of the action.

Usually, the grammatical subject is identical with the logical subject, for logical thinking is expressed through grammar. Yet, there are two categories of exceptions - (a) passive constructions and (b) introductory constructions - the former common to many languages and the latter acquiring peculiar frequency in English.

3.1.2.1.(a) - Passive constructions :

If we analyse such an example as "New victories have been won by our sportsmen", we find that the noun or noun equivalent used in the nominative is the merely formal or grammatical subject of the sentence. It does ^{not} point to the author of the action - winning victories - but to the object (or in other cases person), on which the action tells or is reflected. The agent of the author of the action acquires the character of a logical subject, being expressed by what English grammar calls a prepositional object of agent. The passive sentence we have cited naturally has an active equivalent (Our sportsmen have won new victories) but on various occasions there is one reason or another for employing a passive construction (avoiding mention of the agent, ignoring the agent, laying emphasis on the object - as in our case - stylistic effects, etc.).

The scheme which we propose for shifting from an active to a passive construction and vice-versa is the following :

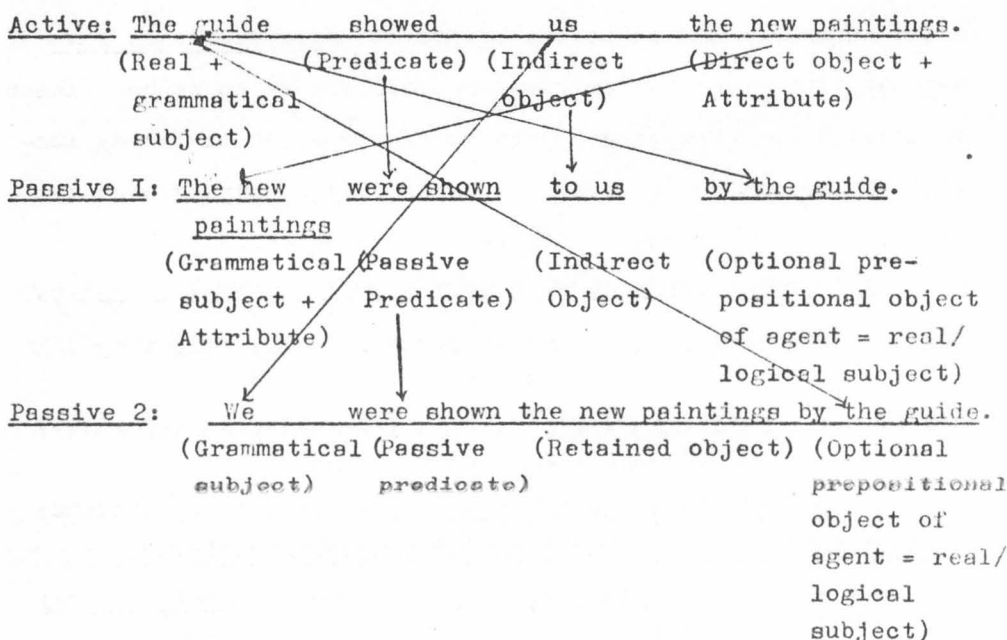


English passive constructions, either personal or impersonal, correspond to the Romanian reflexive-possessive constructions (impersonal in meaning) of the types S-au obținut realizări importante and Se crede că nu au venit.

On the other hand, we should not forget that in English the indirect object may also turn into a subject for a passive construction (e.g., the active construction The guide showed us the new paintings may turn into either The new paintings were shown to us, or into We were shown the new paintings; the agent is apt to go unmentioned, because one can easily infer his identity or because we want to avoid unnecessary repetitions, etc.).

This can be represented in the following graphical form:

Figure II



Moreover, some of the verbs followed by obligatory prepositions can be turned into the passive, which gives rise to sentences whose subject may be formed by the prepositional object of the active construction:

Figure III: e.g.,

<u>Active</u> : Many students	participated	in the meeting
(Real and gram-	(Predicate)	(Prepositional
matical subject		object)
+ attribute)		

<u>Passive</u> 3: The meeting	was partici-	by many students
(Grammatical	pated in	(Prepositional
subject +	(Predicate)	object of agent
attribute)		= real subject)

3.1.2.2.(b) - constructions with introductory elements

(it, there, here)

We can distinguish the following categories of introductory subjects :

A. Anticipatory [*æntisipatəri*] which discharge no syntactical function being used merely instead of the real subject, which is placed by the speaker or writer after another word - (emphasis is usually on the predicative) - considered by him more important for the meaning of the sentence :

It is \nice of you to have come.

It is \pleasant to sit in the grass and watch the sun in his chariot of gold and the moon in her chariot of silver (Wilde, the Nightingale and the Rose)

It's \absolutely \useless to speak to him.

As a rule, in constructions introduced by there emphasis is laid merely on the existence or absence of the real subject. When other verbs than "to be" are employed, which

happens much more rarely, emphasis is laid either on existence or on the semantic content of these verbs :

And to port there 'loomed' a 'bulky' mass with a slanting outline (J.Conrad, Typhoon)

There came 'nothing out of the sack but what was in it.

(English proverb)

In spite of the empirical (and often mistaken) usage by foreigners, a frequency survey of contemporary British and American usage shows that in constructions introduced by 'there', the verb 'to be' occurs in about 95 % of the instances, the same verb preceded by 'to seem' or 'to appear' in about 2 %, the verbs 'to come' or 'to arrive' in another 2 %, while all other verbs and occasional passive constructions are extremely rare, all of them taken together amounting only to the remaining 1 per cent of the cases. This can be presented graphically as follows :

Figure IV :

	<u>There</u> +
	T O
95 %	B E
2 %	to seem to appear + to be
2 %	to come to arrive
1 %	all other verbs (including passive constructions)

A further discussion of the function discharged by the construction 'there is', 'there are' will be made in connection with the simple verbal predicate. For the time being, let us confine ourselves to recalling the absolute necessity of employing the introductory subject 'there' in all sentences referring to existence, that is all those intended to describe the contents of a room, bookcase, etc. or the location of objects of geographical elements, etc. (The obligation is not always observed in stage directions).

B. Announcing or exclamatory [iksklamətəri] whose role is to emphasize the approach or the coming of the real subject by a sort of interjection which calls attention rather to the subject than to the predicate :

Here/There is Tom. Here/There he is.

Here are come Dick and Clara to fetch you away

(W.Morris)

There are the Houses of Parliament. (W.Morris)

In case the real subject is expressed by a personal pronoun, it follows immediately after the introductory subject there (and this point goes to prove even more clearly the semantic and functional similarity between them) :

And here we are riding, she and I.

Here we ride.

Interesting considerations can be made on the normal Romanian translations of such sentences, for instance two quotations from Hamlet, first act : There it goes ! and the

employment of where (archaic) with the same function :

Look, where it comes again !

The value of an announcing or warning exclamation or of an announcement proper is expressed in Romanian by "Iată-l/ Iat-o (că vine etc.)", "Uite-l/Uite-o(și) pe X", etc.

C. Emphatic constructions, whose role is to underline or single out various parts of the sentence, as follows :

a) The real subject :

e.g., It's he who broke the window (in which the real subject is placed within the framework of a clause in order to stress its novelty as a rheme, which may be misleading in syntactical analysis) :

e.g., It's father as calls me Sissy, (Hard Times)

It is I that/who met his sister in the hall.

b) The direct object :

e.g., It was his sister that/whom I met in the hall.

c) The indirect object :

e.g., It was to him that I spoke, not to her.

d) The prepositional object :

e.g., It is about you that I was talking, not about him.

e) The adverbial modifier of manner :

e.g., It is but reluctantly that I gave my consent.

f) The adverbial modifier of attending (or attendant) circumstances :

e.g., It was by a frightful snowstorm that he arrived at the chalet.

g) The adverbial modifier of place :

e.g., It was at the library that I had lost
my man.

h) The adverbial modifier of time :

e.g., It was sixteen years ago that I landed him.
(J.K. Jerome)

It was when the weather quieted down that
the situation became confoundedly delicate.

(J. Conrad Typhoon)

Therefore, introductory emphatic constructions may underline or single out any part of the sentence, except the predicate. The latter needs other means of emphasis : do, does, did for some verbal predicates, stress for other ones, introductory anticipatory constructions for partially stressing the predicatives of the nominal ones.

3.1.3. Impersonal subjects which do not refer to a definite / well-established person or thing. Such subjects may be used to denote time and weather, distance or the state of things in general. To be more specific, they refer to :

a) time (chronological - referring to hours, parts of the day, dates, days of the week etc.)

e.g., It was nearly the time of full moon.

It was getting into the afternoon.

b) lapse of time

e.g., It's a month//a year//three weeks since

we last met// since I saw him last.

- c) weather, as a meteorological notion, either in constructions with a nominal predicate (an adjective being used as a predicative) or with impersonal verbs.

e.g., It is cold, etc.

- d) natural phenomena :

e.g., It is raining. It dewed heavily overnight.
It thunders/lightens, etc.

- e) distance :

e.g., It's a long way to Tipperary, it's a long way to go.
It is five miles to the next town.

- f) the state of things in general:

e.g., Since it is so ... (Browning)
It was all over with the poor dog.
It's wonderful // awful !

3.2. B. Classification of Subjects in Point of Composition / Structure / Form

According to the criterion of composition, subjects may be classified as : simple, compound, coordinated, complex, double.

3.2.1. Simple subjects expressed by one word (usually a noun or a noun equivalent) possibly accompanied by attributes :

e.g., A train was coming in.
Whistling would be heard.

3.2.2. Compound subjects which, although expressed by two or several elements (nouns) represent one person or one thing.

e.g., Age and wedlock tames man and beast.

(English proverb)

Here comes my lord and master. (Maugham)

As is easily noticed, agreement of compound subjects and predicate is in the singular.

Sometimes they may not refer to one thing but they are perceived as one entity, cf.:

e.g., Strawberries and cream is delicious.

(compound subject)

on the other hand, Strawberries and cream are delicious.

(coordinated subjects)

3.2.3. Coordinated subjects, including two or more elements which refer to several notions joined by coordinating conjunctions. Agreement is usually in the plural :

e.g., A boaster and a liar are cousin-germans.

Weight and measure take away strife.

(English proverb)

I and my mistress ... shall be together,
breathe and ride (Browning)

I and she/Ride, ride together, forever ride.

(Browning)

Sometimes, two or several co-ordinated subjects have the same determinative or modifier:

What hand and brain went ever paired ? (Browning)

3.2.4. Complex subjects - subjects (or rather subject phrases) made up of heterogeneous elements - usually one within the sphere of Nomina and one within that of Verba - yet inseparable, because it is only together that they give (full) meaning to the subject (and to the sentence as a whole).

Among the constructions or phrases which fall into this category, we mention :

a. the for-to phrase :

For him to do this is rather difficult.

(What is difficult : That he should do this/

His doing this/The doing of this by him)

b. the nominative with the infinitive :

Louisa had been overheard to begin a conversation with her brother. (The listener heard Louisa and the fact that she began talking to her brother).

His wrists and knees could be seen to shake violently (Conrad, Typhoon)

After a moment, the outer door is heard to bang.

(What is heard ? The banging of the outer door/ That the outer door banged).

c. the nominative with indefinite participle :

The children were seen running to the river.

d. Subordinate subject clauses (amply discussed in the lecture on the complex sentence, under 2.1)

That he will manage is beyond any doubt.

How he succeeded in doing it passes my understanding.

3.2.4.1. Various interpretations of the problem of complex subjects suggest the introduction into this category of such constructions as The door was burst open or He was appointed secretary to the committee. As they derive from active (factitive or resultative) constructions of the types "He burst the door open" or "They appointed him secretary" - the last element in both being formed predicative adjunct (= "element predicativ suplimentar") the latter is considered subject complement (= "idem, pe lingă subiect"). Another reasoning is that since complex subjects of this type are used in the passive voice, corresponding to complex objects in the active voice, it would be natural to turn all complex objects in the active into complex subjects in the passive. In our opinion, however, it seems rather obvious that resultative or factitive constructions in the active, that is those which include something else beside the predicate proper, belong rather in the sphere of the latter, having little to do with the subject.

3.2.5. Double subjects materialized in both a (proper) noun and a pronoun : the latter being a substitute for the former, this is clearly a case of redundancy (specific to English grammar which requires the subject to be expressed in contrast with other languages). Therefore it is a popular form that does not perfectly comply with the rules of grammar, but appears only in folk poetry, in nursery rhymes and

in careless speech. Here is an example from a folk poem reproduced in a story by Thomas Hardy :

O, my trade it is the rarest one,

Simple shepherds all -

My trade is a sight to see.

3.2.5.1. The presence of such an example in The Song of the Wage—Slave points to the intention of the Chartist poet Ernest Charles Jones (1819-1869) to imitate the folk style (within the framework of emphasis) :

The land it is the landlord's

The trader's is the sea ...

3.2.5.2. Sometimes, in familiar speech, the repetition of the subject is accompanied by the repetition of the predicate :

He was a very good boy, George was (J.K.Jerome,

Three Men in a Boat)

He's got a lot of brains, George has.

(J.B.Priestley, Laburnum Grove)

4.0. The Place of the Subject

Usually, the place of the subject in declarative, affirmative and negative sentences is at the beginning of the sentence. The subject is preceded by its adjectival attributes with which it forms a single group - the subject group. The subject may also be preceded by adverbial modifiers of manner, of attendant circumstances, of definite time and - rarely - of place. In interrogative and interrogative-negative sentences, the subject is preceded by an

anomalous finite.

The various cases of inversion are discussed in the lecture on the latter subject.

5. Peculiarities of English Usage

5.1. Unlike Romanian grammar, English grammar requires an expressed subject in the great majority of cases. The omission of the subject, much less frequent than in other languages, is however possible (in certain styles) with co-ordinated predicates, and in set phrases.

5.2. Reflexive-passive constructions in Romanian, with an impersonal subject (se) are generally rendered in English by passive constructions whose subject is :

a) either it :

Se spune că e grozav la matematică = It is said that he is an adept at mathematics.

Se crede că e singura soluție = It is believed that it is the only solution.

NOTE: On the other hand, in free variation (though frequently enough) the English express such ideas through a complex subject in the form of a "nominative + infinitive" construction (cf. 3.2.4. b) :

He is said to be an adept at mathematics.

It is believed to be the only solution.

She is supposed to be eventually cured.

b) or the object (of the corresponding active construction) :

S-au creat condiții = Conditions have been created.

S-au prezentat filme = Films were shown.

Problema (grammatical subject) se studiază de o comisie (logical subject) = The problem is being examined by a commission.

5.3. Dative constructions in Romanian, which are similar in languages like Russian or German (îmi place, mi-e foame, etc.) are rendered into English in two ways :

a) Those including verbs forming a nominal predicate have sentences with a nominal predicate as their English correspondents : the subject of the English sentence corresponds to the indirect object in Romanian :

e.g.: Mi-era foame = I was hungry.

Ne era somn = We were sleepy.

b) Those including predicative intransitive verbs offer two different situations :

- The constructions with the verb a plăcea are rendered with the help of the verbs to like and to enjoy (transitive) - the subject being the person involved (dative in Romanian, nominative in English, while the Romanian subject becomes the English direct object) :

e.g., Mi-a plăcut foarte mult filmul = I very much liked the picture.

Îi place grozav să joace tenis = He very much enjoys playing tennis.

- The constructions with the verbs a sta, a șede, a

a veni, a se potrive (bine) are rendered by the transitive verbs to suit, to fit (to sit -, fig. to become).

e.g., Îți șade bine = It suits/fits/sits you well.

5.4. The verb a se părea is constructed with the dative in both Romanian and English.

e.g., Mi se pare că ... = It seems/appears to me
that ...

5.5. Subjects in the dative, to be found in earlier English in such constructions as methinks, methought, meseems, are rendered in Romanian by constructions corresponding to the verb employed : in the case of the verb a socoti or a crede, we use the sentence with the subject in the nominative, while in the case of the verb a se părea we naturally employ the dative construction : Methinks I see my father (Hamlet) can be rendered into Romanian by parcă-l văd pe tata or mi se pare că-l văd pe tatăl meu.

5.6. The repetition of the subject, occurring in English too, does not offer the modal and semantic implications in Romanian (emphasis, insistence, threat, satisfaction, etc.). The situations are the following :

(a) In disjunctive questions :

e.g., John is your cousin, isn't he ?

(b) In colloquial speech :

e.g., He was a good boy, John was.

(c) In folk poems and nursery rhymes :

e.g., The snail he lives in a small house.

In the first two cases - case a. being extremely

frequent in English - the part of the predicate is also repeated, that is we have the sentence in a nut-shell. On the other hand, case (b) (cf.3.2.5.2) is not very frequent while the construction under(c) (double subject) is to be avoided in all situations except those mentioned under 3.2.5.

5.7. The subject is not repeated in an enumeration of predicates :

e.g., He came, saw and conquered.

5.8. The subject is ^{generally} omitted in constructions beginning with as :

e.g., As is usual, As is normal, As is but
natural/normal, As was to be expected,
As was shown elsewhere.

V. THE AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE PREDICATE AND THE SUBJECT

0.1. A chapter of English syntax which involves difficulties for Romanian and other foreigners is agreement or concord between the predicate and the subject. The difficulties do not arise so much out of some complications of form or logic, as out of the variety of categories into which English nouns fall, when classified in accordance with the idea of number.

In many languages (e.g. Romanian, French) certain predicates (i.e. the past participles of passive predicates or the predicative adjectives of nominal predicates) have to suit the subject in gender or case or both.

In English the problem of concordance is limited only to the agreement in person and especially in number.

1.1. AGREEMENT IN PERSON

Naturally enough, the person of the finite verb corresponds to that indicated by the subject. There are a few cases, however, which may give rise to some doubt : one of the difficulties is related to the subjects denoting different persons and coordinated by either ... or, neither ... nor, not only ... but also, as well as, no less than, like, without :

I, as well as he, ... am (?) / is (?)

He, no less than we ... is (?) / are (?)

1.1.1. The rule of proximity (= acordul prin atracție) may be applied here, the predicate being made to agree with the subject that is closest to it :

e.g., Either you or I was to go there.

Neither you nor I am to blame

1.1.2. On the other hand, most grammars hold such constructions as clumsy and advise us either

(a) to repeat the verb :

Either you were to go there or I was.

Neither I am to blame nor you are.

The constructions thus become explicit.

or (b) to use a verbal form without person distinctions :

Either you or I had to go there.

Neither I nor you ought to be blamed/should be blamed.

It is to be noted that in the above cases the predicate remained in the singular (because of the conjunctions or prepositions coordinating the subjects). On the other hand, "Neither you nor I are to blame" is an increasingly frequent occurrence.

1.2. Subjects denoting different persons and coordinated by the conjunction and take a plural verb but we are held to apply a rule of precedence of the first person over the second and of the latter over the third.

e.g., Helen and I (=we) have known each other for years (considered as first person plural).
Helen and you (= you two) are very much alike (considered to be in the second person plural)

Helen and Mary (= they) have grown up together
(naturally third person plural).

2. AGREEMENT IN NUMBER

2.o. This is what makes up the bulk, the essence and the difficulty of the agreement / concord of subject and predicate in English.

As one usually realizes, the problem is far more complicated than in Romanian ; there are many rules and some exceptions, there are several types of agreement in number between the predicate and the subject - either for whole categories of subjects or for isolated cases.

The main differences between English and Romanian in this respect are closely bound up with the great differences between the two languages in point of classification of nouns in terms of the idea of number.

It is common knowledge that the various categories established in this way involve certain peculiarities as to their determinatives and agreement.

Other sources of differences are provided by the usage of pronouns (especially indefinite) and by the various categories of subjects (simple, compound, co-ordinated and complex).

There is therefore a great diversity of cases, more or less limited in applicability, which make classification and systematization rather difficult.

Moreover, in some of these cases, usage is not perfectly crystallized, it differs from one speaker to another,

from one writer to another, and indications given by grammarians vary accordingly.

Though some of the difficulties are to be found in Romanian too, in the latter language the problem is far less complicated.

2.1. Given these inconsistencies, the conclusion is forced upon us that an evolution is under way in the situation on number and agreement.

The evolution is more clearly perceptible in connection with collective nouns, which are used more and more often with a plural verb, but it is also to be noticed in connection with other categories of subjects.

This section therefore analyses the cases of agreement in contemporary English and offers certain indications as to the tendencies manifest nowadays.

The systematization attempted here is a somehow practical one, while the theoretical justification is to be found in professor Levițchi's classification of nouns, according to the idea of number¹ and in various papers by A.Bantaș². A different arrangement (according to the types of subject) is proposed by A.Bantaș in Gramatica Limbii Engleze (compiled by the English Department of Bucharest University), Editura de Stat Didactică și Pedagogică, 1962, volume II, the chapter

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1. L.Levițchi, Limba engleză contemporană - Morfologia, Ed. Didactică, 1970, and Gramatica Limbii engleze, Ed. Didactică, 1971.
 2. A.Bantaș, Relations between Semantics and Grammar in the Sphere of Nouns, Analele Universității București, 1971; The Grammatical Regimen of the Contemporary English Noun dissertation, 1975; Criteria for the Contrastive Analysis of English Nouns, Studies in English and Romanian Semantics and Grammar, 1975, etc.

on agreement.

Both arrangements proceed from an analysis and interpretation of all cases of agreement mentioned by books of traditional grammar available to date (Jespersen, Zandvoort, Nesfield, Kruisinga, Ilysh, Israilevich, Vinokurova, Ganshina, Bădescu, etc.).

2.2. By investigating the various cases offered by English texts and listed by English grammars, we may establish the following situations :

- I) the subject takes a singular verb ;
- II) a singular or a plural verb is employed, in keeping with the meaning of the subject ;
- III) a singular or a plural verb is employed, in keeping with the speaker's/writer's desire (optional agreement) ;
- IV) the subject takes only a plural verb ;
- V) the verb agrees with one of the several subjects in the sentence.

3.0. Let us now take each situation in turn.

3.1.0. Situation I - A predicate in the singular follows:

3.1.1. An individual noun in the singular :

e.g., The boy was playing in the garden.

3.1.2. A proper noun / name in the singular :

e.g., Ben Nevis is Britain's highest mountain.

3.1.3. A proper-noun equivalent in the singular :

e.g., The moon is the natural satellite of the earth.

3.1.4. A noun of material singular in form :

e.g., Timber has various uses.

3.1.5. Abstractions (and other abstract nouns regarded as unique) :

e.g., Waiting was tiresome.

The old yields to the new.

3.1.5.1. To the same category belong also names of sciences, with a plural form :

e.g., Genetics is a branch of biology.

Economics is studied in the third year.

3.1.5.2. The category also includes the nouns advice, information and news which take a singular verb even when they imply a plurality of elements.

e.g., And now, Laertes, what's the news with you ?

(Shakespeare)

His advice was extremely valuable.

Such nouns may become countable by means of the numeratives : a piece of, two, etc. pieces of (advice, etc.).

Note : It is worth recalling that the plural noun 'advices' has the meaning of "Instrucțiuni ; informații ; comunicări".

3.1.6. The nouns furniture and luggage have an identical regimen.

e.g., The furniture is of no particular style.

(Cf. Two or three pieces of furniture are :

however likely to fetch a good price. -

(Galsworthy)

3.1.7. Singular nouns coordinated by and not, but, like, no less than.

e.g., Emily Brontë, no less than Charlotte, was a great writer. Anne Brontë, like her sisters, Charlotte and Emily, is known to have used a pseudonym.

There is a peculiarity in the usage of nouns connected by and:

The mayor and his "ring" was to be ousted at all costs.

(Dreiser)

Where was she and her child to sleep that night?

(Beecher-Stowe)

Examples of this kind are explained by the fact that the two nouns linked together are viewed as a unit.

Moreover, when the predicative verb precedes the subjects, only one of the latter is then present in the speaker's mind.

3.1.8. A singular verb also follows the nouns gallows and money.

e.g., The gallows is an ominous presence in English picaresque literature.

Money is frequently alluded to in their conversation.

3.1.9. Passing on to other parts of speech, we find that substantivized adjectives (and participles) denoting abstractions take a singular predicate.

e.g., The evil that men do lives after them,

The good is often interred with their bones.

(Shakespeare)

Likely lies in the mire, while unlikely
passes over.

(English proverb)

3.1.10. The verb that follows the pronoun it is
always singular.

e.g., It is we who called on him.

3.1.11. The interrogative pronoun what (used as a subject)
is only followed by a singular verb.

e.g., What's going on here? (cf. What are these?
in which sentence what stands for the predicative).

3.1.12. A singular verb follows most indefinite pro-
nouns, namely: another, each, less, little, a little, much,
one, as well as the pronominal compounds of some, any, no and
every.

The word none is an exception.

e.g., Little is necessary in this case.

This screwdriver is no good. Another is needed.

Somebody is to tell him the truth.

3.1.13. Analysing the types of subjects we see that a
singular predicate agrees with compound subjects.

e.g., Anger and wrath my bosom rends.

Where the blue skies and glowing clime extends.

(Byron)

The nouns of which they are made up are closely linked
together and are conceived as a single notion or idea, for
instance in the following sentences:

My friend and adviser holds a different opinion.

Here comes my lord and master. (Maugham)

3.1.14. A singular predicate also follows certain types of coordinated subjects - first of all - coordinated infinitives :

e.g., To promise and (to) give nothing is to comfort a fool. (English proverb)

To be of noble parentage and not to be endowed with other qualities is rather a defamation than a glory. (English proverb)

3.1.15. Singular subjects co-ordinated by either ... or, neither ... nor.

e.g., Either the mother or the father is to be informed.

Neither advice nor experience is enough.

Note : As to their agreement in person, cf.1.1 - 1.2.

3.1.16. Co-ordinated subjects introduced by there and here follow the same rule (if the first is in the singular):

e.g., There is a bottle and a glass on the sideboard

Here comes my friend and his twins.

Roughly speaking the rule is applied especially when the verb precedes the subjects, the first of which is in the singular (cf. 3.1.7).

It holds good in the rather rare cases of ellipsis of there (for instance in stage directions).

e.g., In the room is a table and a few chairs.

The idea is that only the first subject is present in

the speaker's mind when he utters or writes the predicate.

3.1.17. Co-ordinated nouns accompanied by each and every are also followed by a singular verb.

e.g., Every field and meadow is welcoming spring.

3.2.0. Situation II - Less contorted, though not very simple, is the second situation : that of subjects whose meaning entails the use of a singular of plural predicate.

Part of them are provided by various nouns implying the singular or the plural.

3.2.1. In contemporary English, collective nouns such as people (= "popor"), nation, the working class, the proletariat, the peasantry, parliament, government, mankind, crew, team, family, group take only a singular verb when they are used in an abstract meaning, (especially for generalization) preferably a singular verb when their abstract (or concrete) features are described or defined, and favour a plural verb when they refer to a number of human (or other) beings whose actions, thoughts, gestures, position, localization are indicated.

e.g., The English Parliament was founded in 1216.

but

The (English) Parliament have decided to adjourn the debates.

In spite of certain variations and inconsistencies in usage also to be noted in many other cases of agreement, we may infer the following conclusions from the present-day texts and speech :

3.2.1.1. Collective nouns are considered singular and consequently replaced by it and followed by a verb in the singular only when they are taken in their abstract meaning or seen as a unit (for purposes of definition or description)

3.2.1.2. They are considered plural and consequently require plural agreements and substitutes when the notion of collectivity, of number (usually people) is implied (to point to agents, doers of some kind of action - concerted or not, physical, mental or emotional, to indicate positional relations).

To put it differently, the plural is used when the group concept takes precedence over the individual, abstract meaning.

3.2.1.3. There is a steady increase in the instances of agreement in the plural when the subject is a collective noun.

3.2.1.4. On the one hand nowadays there are many more nouns which English people include in this category.

3.2.1.5. Moreover there is a gradual extension of the cases when a plural construction is put on such nouns, some examples becoming actually striking.

e.g., France (= the French team) have scored
heavily against Wales..

In fact the tendency has seen a substantial spreading in the last 50 years and the category of collective nouns now involves practically all those which denote classes, groups and collectivities of people : team, crew, faculty,

(= 'cadre universitare'), (teaching) staff, government, party, union, federation, leadership, professoriate, studenthood, majority, minority, citizenship, infantry, cavalry, army, peasantry, working class, proletariat, navy force, and, of course, the compounds including the words people and folk.

3.2.2. Individual nouns of multitude (which have the same form in the singular and plural) take a singular or plural predicate, function of the singular or plural meaning of the noun they denote.

e.g., The sheep are / is grazing (according to whether we refer to one sheep or to several).

Note: 3.2.2.1. Most nouns in this category belong to the field of zoology : deer, sheep, bison, grouse, moose, fish, carp, trout, cod, salmon etc. (Some never take an s plural in the language of hunters, anglers, fishers).

They naturally preserve the same regimen when they do use an -s plural, especially in order to denote different species.

e.g., A dead fish was washed ashore.

Fish are said to be dumb,

but

Sturgeon(s), sander and a few other fishes of the Romanian waters are unknown in Britain, while the opposite is true of salmon and cod.

3.2.2.2. The same rule applies to the noun fruit.

3.2.2.3. On the other hand, fish and fruit take only

a singular verb when they have the meaning of food (being somewhat equivalent to nouns of material).

e.g., Fish was the second course. Fruit was not served at all.

3.2.2.4. Other individual nouns of multitude belong to the sphere of measures and numbers.

e.g., One or two brace (of partridges), one, two or three gross (of stockings, etc.) couple, dozen, score, head, ton, stone.

3.2.3. There are some nouns whose agreement with a singular or a plural verb makes a difference in their meaning.

English word	Meaning in Romanian	
	Singular	Plural
BRAINS	creier, organ anatomic	minte
COUPLE, PAIR	soți	doi, pereche
MEANS	instrument	mijloace, posibilități
STATISTICS	știința statisticii	operația în sine, documente de statistică

e.g., The couple is quite young.

but

A couple of children were walking hand in hand.

The brains don't lie in the beard.

(English proverb)

3.2.4. Agreement of the predicate is in the singular or the plural when the nouns bulk, majority, number, part, plerty, proportions, range, series, succession, variety are followed by a plural noun accompanied by the preposition of :

e.g. (a) A variety of solutions are applicable.

(b) The variety of possibilities was none too great.

The idea is that in the former sentence variety was the attribute of the plural subject solutions, while in the latter sentence the plural noun possibilities is the attribute of the singular noun variety.

It is worth noticing that in examples of the first type, the nouns variety, number, majority, etc. are preceded by the indefinite article, while the definite article is used in the second - the anticipatory and respectively the anaphorical function of the articles being involved.

3.2.5. Going on to other parts of speech we see that certain pronouns are followed by a singular or plural verb, function of their singular or plural implications.

3.2.5.1. Such is the case of the relative pronoun that

It is followed by the singular when the noun it replaces is singular and vice-versa.

e.g., It is the boy that sings.

but

It is the parents that share the guilt.

3.2.5. Such is also the case of the interrogative and relative pronouns which and who.

e.g., Which is / are mine ?

Who is / (rarely) are in favour ?

3.2.6. Some of the indefinite pronouns also fall into this category : all, any, either, neither, some.

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
<u>all</u>	totul, toată (referring to things)	toți, toate (referring to things or persons)
<u>any</u>	oricare, vreunul, vreuna nici unul, nici una (depending on the type of sentence)	oricare, oricine, vreunii vreunele, niciunele
<u>either</u>	vreunul	amîndoi
<u>some</u>	parte, ceva, puțină	cîțiva, cîteva, unii, unele
<u>more</u>	mai mult, mai multă e.g., Some (of it) <u>is</u> good and some <u>is</u> spoilt.	mai mulți, mai multe

3.3.0. Situation III : A few subjects may be followed by a singular or a plural predicate in accordance with the speaker's or writer's wish.

In such instances, there are no restrictions, and usage has not yet imposed or established either of the two numbers.

3.3.1. The first case is that of plural titles of books, newspapers and magazines.

e.g., South Sea Tales was/were one of London's most successful books.

Sketches by Boz are/is known to be Dickens' first book.

The daily Times has/(rarely) have a poor circulation.

At the basis of the variation lies the fact that the title may be taken either as a plural (according to its formal aspect) or as a singular (according to its meaning = a book, a volume, a newspaper).

In fact the singular is preferred.

The same applies even to the case of the reduction of a longer title, more or less to the essential noun which is plural in form :

e.g., Plutarch's Lives was/were Shakespeare's source of inspiration for some of his plays (full title : The Parallel Lives of Illustrious People).

3.3.2. Plural names of diseases and games are usually followed by a singular verb, but some speakers prefer the plural.

Examples are :

measles, mumps, ricketts, hysterics,

as well as

billiards, draughts, marbles, ninepins, skittles,
consequences, forfeits, musical chairs, etc.

Again the singular is predominant in texts.

e.g., Billiards is/are less in favour nowadays.

3.3.3. A similar situation is that of the plural names of buildings, establishments, offices, etc.

e.g., works, headquarters.

The UNO headquarters is/are in New York.

The Inns of Court houses/house // is/are one
of the London law schools and bar associations.

3.3.4. Plural nouns preceded by plural measures, weights, numeralives or quantifiers may nevertheless be followed by a singular verb if they are taken to be units :

e.g., Two thirds of this is/are private investment.

Six and a half hours are/is quite a long journey.

Three pounds are/is likely to be enough.

3.3.5. Another difficult case is provided by the noun wages. It is used in the plural with the plural meaning of "salarii", but in connection with the singular meaning of "salariu" there is some fluctuation in usage.

Modern writers show a preference for a singular predicate moreover employing the form wage, especially in set-phrases and traditional combinations.

e.g., And what are its wages ?

but

A fitter's wage(s) is higher.

On the other hand, we find the collocations minimum wage, average wage, living wage, starvation wage, quite naturally accompanied by a singular verb.

Note : In this connection we might advance the remark that this seems to fit the tendency in contemporary English towards the utilization of singular or plural forms more adequate to meaning,

e.g., brain in the singular for the anatomical organ, or holiday or vacation for a spell of rest, collective nouns with the plural when referring to a group etc.

3.3.6. This is also illustrated by the present situation of the noun contents.

It is very often used with a singular verb and even with its own singular form, but occasionally employed with a plural verb, especially when it has the meaning of table of contents.

e.g., The content(s) of the book is not very interesting.

The contents (= "tabla de materii") are usually placed at the beginning of an English book.

3.3.7. The phrase more than ... preceding nouns may accept a singular or plural verb (like measures).

e.g., More than half the students was/were present.

More than two thirds are/is necessary.

3.3.8. Among indefinite pronouns, which are (for the most part) used with a singular verb, the word none shows a fluctuating usage.

Formerly it was employed mostly with a singular verb, now it is used more commonly with the plural.

In fact, the present-day tendency is still contradictory: either replacing it by no one (which is normally accompanied by a singular verb) or extending it to none of them (which is considered plural).

e.g., None is/are agreeable to the proposal.

but more usually :

No one is in favour or

None of them are in favour.

3.3.9. And, last but not least, in English, arithmetical

operations are expressed either with the singular or with the plural, in indicating the result (very much as in Romanian).

e.g., Three and six is / are nine.

3.4.o. Situation IV : Certain subjects admit only a plural predicate.

3.4.1. Defective individual nouns (also called pluralia tantum) always take a plural verb.

The examples are : a) articles of dress - especially the various kinds of trousers (e.g., slacks, plus-fours, shorts, bell-bottoms, bermudas, knicker bockers,) or underwear (panties, slips, drawers, knickers, etc.); b) two-arm / two-part instruments (e.g., pincers, tongs, pliers, tweezers) c) parts of the body (e.g., whiskers, side-burns, bowels) and d) miscellaneous nouns : (e.g., thanks, auspices, doings, earnings, annals, alms, etc.)

e.g., Thanks are never superfluous.

Clothes do not make the man. (English proverbs)

The goings on are not to my liking.

Among such nouns, those which have a double nature, that is implying the notion of something twofold, may be used as countables with the help of a pair of, two pairs of (trousers, etc.)

3.4.2. Nouns of multitude always take a plural predicate. For the most part they denote groups of persons :

people (the plural of man and woman), folk, militia, police, clergy, gentry, the military, foot (= "infanterie")

horse (= "cavalerie").

Three of these nouns denote a multitude of other living beings : poultry, vermin, cattle.

e.g., The gen^{try} were displeased with the King.

The police were coming to the spot.

The cattle were being foddered.

3.4.3. Plural names of sciences are used with a plural verb when they are determined :

e.g., Their phonetics (= "pronunția") are not quite up to the mark.

The acoustics (= "audiția", "condițiile acustice") of the multi-purpose hall are very good indeed.

In fact we may say that in these cases the nouns are no longer used as abstract names of sciences, but refer to features specific to some other noun.

3.4.4. The nouns athletics and gymnastics (which are not considered individually as subject-matters but as a complexity of disciplines and events) require plural predicates.

e.g., You can hardly argue that gymnastics are unimportant for one's health.

3.4.5. Plural nouns of material also take a plural predicate.

They are not many : victuals, spirits, dregs, lees, sweepings.

e.g., The victuals were far from sufficient.

3.4.6. A plural verb follows a singular noun if the

latter is accompanied by two or several adjectives which differentiate it.

e.g.; Lyrical and epical poetry were both flourishing at the time.

3.4.7. Even abstractions or nouns of material in the singular may take a plural predicate if they are modified by two coordinated attributes.

e.g., Sweet and sour milk are not to be mixed.
Hot and cold water run at the tap.

On the other hand there is a certain variation of solutions on this point.

Sometimes we say :

The nineteenth and the twentieth century are remarkable for the progress of science.

but we can also say :

The nineteenth and twentieth centuries are highly illustrative in this respect.

3.4.8. Concerning other parts of speech used as subjects we recall that substantivized adjectives as well as principles with a collective meaning (referring to people) require a plural verb.

e.g., The dead are not to be spoken ill of.
The wounded were taken to hospital.

3.4.9. As to pronouns, a small number of indefinite ones require this type of agreement, namely both and none of them.

e.g., There are two solutions but both are unacceptable.

None of them have followed John's bad example.

3.4.10. The phrase one or two also takes a plural predicate.

e.g., Out of the guests, only one or two are doing justice to the dinner.

3.4.11 Co-ordinated gerunds take a plural verb.

e.g., Ploughing and sowing cereals are almost finished.

3.4.12. In fact the rule is that co-ordinated subjects are followed by a plural verb, but we must by all means make sure that they do not enter any of the exceptions mentioned above or below.

e.g., A fool and his money are soon parted.

(English proverb)

3.5.0. Situation V : Now we come to the last type of concord in number - namely when the predicate agrees with one of the several subjects present in the sentence.

3.5.1. Generally speaking, agreement is with the first subject. Yet, in case the two subjects differ in person, we may also find examples of agreement between the predicate and the subject which is closest to it, owing to the rule of proximity. (= "acordul prin atracție").

We discussed such examples in connection with the problem of agreement in person and it is advisable to avoid making such sentences as :

* Not only I, but also he, sings awfully ,

but rather to rephrase the sentence like this :

I sing awfully and so does he.

You were wrong and so was I.

That is we are advised to attach a separate predicate to each subject.

3.5.2. Nouns connected by with or together with are followed by a verb which agrees with the first of them (so if the latter is in the singular, the verb is also singular and vice-versa).

e.g., The teacher, together with the pupils, is expected today.

The pupils, together with their teacher, are already there.

3.5.3. Subjects connected by the conjunction as well as require a predicate in agreement with the first of them.

e.g., The ship as well as the passengers was lost.

The passengers as well as the ship were lost.

Nevertheless, to avoid anything jarring on our ears, some grammarians again advise us to rephrase the sentence - by the use of and or the repetition of the verb.

e.g., Both ship and passengers / The ship and the passengers were lost or

The ship was lost and so were the passengers.

4.0. It is rather hard to sum up the agglomeration of different and diverging cases and opinions.

Practically speaking it is impossible to remember all the recommendations in the present attempt at systematization

- which after all cannot exhaust all problems and details.

Reference to the corresponding chapter in grammar books is necessary, as are also some personal tables of schemes (including our personal observations too).

Given the diversity of these cases and the number of words which do not fall into a category but form categories of their own, we should start making lists indicating the regimen of various English nouns in point of agreement, as well as other problems.

In fact, it all boils down to the necessity for a dictionary pointing to the regimen of each meaning.

VI. THE PREDICATE ^{x)}

1.0. In English as well as in other languages, sentences (also called propositions) are interpreted in similar terms in grammar and in logic. More particularly in the light of modern conceptions in these two fields connected with communication, it has been proved and expounded (ever since the Prague School of Linguistics) that most of the information is transmitted through the predicate group (the verb plus objects plus adverbial modifiers), while the subject group (the noun or noun equivalents plus attributes) is the element spoken about, described, analysed, positioned etc. or merely a referential element, used as a support for the new quantity of information conveyed. In the same terms, the subject group is defined as the "theme" or "topic", while the predicate group is described as the "rheme" - that is the element of action, of movement, the carrier of the essential information about the theme (in this respect cf. also the preliminary remarks in the lecture of the subject).

This conception is very well supported by phonetic factors, for the analysis of suprasegmental elements proves that most of the logical, psychological and emotional stress falls on the novel part of the sentence, called by some linguists "nucleus" and by others "focus". It is the predicate-part of

x) This lecture relies substantially on Prof. Levičhi's support.

the sentence that attracts most of the attention and acquires the greatest prominence through phonetic factors too (stress, pitch, change of pitch, rhythm).

Thus we realize that although the subject and the predicate are considered in various languages the main parts of the sentence, in fact, in English the role of the subject is much more reduced than that of the predicate, in spite of its almost obligatory presence (while in many sentences in Romanian, etc. it may not appear at all).

1.1. The definition of the predicate is generally expressed in close relationship with the subject. Out of the various definitions (sometimes contradictory and sometimes only partly true) we can proceed from the one given by the Academy Grammar of the Romanian Language: "The predicate is that principal part of the sentence which ascribes an action, a state or a quality to the subject".¹ Or, to paraphrase the same grammar, the predicate is that principal part of the sentence which shows (a) what the subject does, (b) what the subject is or (c) what the subject is like.

e.g., Then the sun was brighter and the glare came on the water and then, as it rose clear, the flat sea sent it back at his eyes so that it hurt sharply and he rowed without looking into it.

(Hemingway, The Old Man and the Sea)

We could have got on without him, he used to say, but there's the business. (Conrad, Typhoon)

1 Academia RSR, Gramatica Limbii Române, București, Ed.

Academiei RSR, Ed. II, 1963, vol. II, pag. 95.

1.2. The predicate necessarily includes a verb in a personal mood, either expressed or implied. When the verb is expressed, we find that it may belong to any of the types or categories of the verb : A) auxiliary, B) modal or semi-auxiliary of modality, C) semi-auxiliary of aspect (cf. 2.1.2.2), D) linking verb (cf. 2.2.1.1), E) notional verb or F) one in a category difficult to define (e.g., the verb to have in "to have a walk", "to have breakfast", - that is a sort of intermediate category - cf. 2.1.1.2). In the first three cases (A,B,C), the predicate also needs a notional verb in a non-finite / non-personal form.

Normally, parts of the sentence which do not include a verb in a personal mood, but only a non-finite or non-personal form (infinitive, gerund or participle) are not considered to be a predicate. (But attention must be given to the possibility of such forms to be deprived of their first, personal verbal form through ellipsis - for instance in a repetition, in sentences with homogeneous predicates, etc.)

e.g., Care for a cigarette ? (=Would/Do you care for
= Would you like ...)

He must come (= he persists in coming) here
everyday, come for breakfast, lunch and dinner,
come whether invited or not !

You ought to speak to him, tell him he is
wrong, advise him to give up his plan.

1.3. The problem of the predicate in English, which is fairly complex, is closely linked to that of predication

(analysed in connection with the verb).

One of the difficulties is the presence within the predicate group of various words which may not be essential to predication, sometimes being just adjuncts of the predicate or adverbial elements. Another difficulty is raised by impersonal verbs which cannot be conceived without the subject it.

e.g., I must surely remember to eat the tuna after
it gets light (Hemingway, The Old Man and the Sea)

The predicative verb need not be repeated :

e.g., I have saved you from being beaten once, and
will again, and I do now (Dickens, Oliver Twist)

2.0. Classification of Predicates

Unlike the classification of subjects, which is made first according to the criterion of content and then according to the criterion of structure / composition, the classification of predicates is usually made from both these points of view at the same time. So, we can identify :

I. verbal predicates - including (1) simple ones, subdivided into (a) simple predicates proper and (b) phraseological predicates and (2) the compound verbal predicates - subdivided into (a) compound modal verbal predicates and (b) compound aspect verbal predicates ;

II. nominal predicates - subdivided into (1) nominal predicates proper and (2) double nominal predicates ;

III. mixed types of predicates (joining elements from predicates of the first type to others from the second type).

2.1. VERBAL PREDICATES

Verbal predicates necessarily include at least one personal form of a notional or auxiliary verb - generating simple predicates - or a non-personal/non-finite form of a notional verb preceded by a semi-auxiliary of modality (modal verb) or of aspect - generating compound verbal predicates.

Verbal predicates are therefore divided into two main types 1) - simple predicates (the word "verbal" need not be repeated as nominal predicates are never simple) - which express just one verbal idea, that is they do not convey both the action and the way or manner or aspect of its performance, but merely state the action ; and 2) compound verbal predicates (in sharp contrast with compound nominal predicates) - which do not state, show or indicate the action pure and simple, but accompanied by certain special features, either of modality (that is the way in which it is perceived by the speaker or writer) or of aspect (that is the relation in which it stands towards the time factor).

2.1.1. SIMPLE PREDICATES

2.1.1.1. The Simple Predicate proper (or Simple Verbal Predicate) merely states an action and possibly the time when it is effected (in certain cases not definitely, but merely showing whether it is a matter of the past, present or future).

It is expressed by a verb in a personal mood, in a certain tense, either simple /synthetic - (such as the present or past indicative or the Imperative Mood) or compound / analytic - (for instance the continuous and perfect tenses, the futures, the conditional mood, all tenses of verbs in the passive voice, etc.)

e.g., I said that by that time I should have been waiting for an hour already, . . .

I had been shown the way to the post office
and ^{yet} I didn't find it.

Have you hurt yourself ?

We therefore range within simple predicates even analytic forms or compound tenses - irrespective of the number of auxiliaries they include - because on the one hand even these tenses are conceived as morphological units (being expressed synthetically in many languages) and on the other hand the auxiliaries contributing to their formation are apt to be considered mere grammatical instruments, devoid of semantic force ; therefore only one idea is expressed by them, as in straightforward statements, free from any modal or other implications.

If we follow this line of counting the semantically important elements, we can include in this category of predicates also the predicates of the there is type because their first element loses its function and meaning of an adverb, becoming an introductory subject used only together

with certain verbs in a definite construction with just a few possible translations (as we saw in the chapter on Subjects). Apart from showing existence, these predicates may be used for the exclamations of the type there comes the train, here he is and so on, which can justify their inclusion within this category, because the semantic value of the introductory elements here and there has been lost to a very great extent. (They are treated in the lecture on the Subject, under 2.3.3, as "Introductory subjects or half-subjects").

Note : It is almost exclusively in these situations that the verb to be is nowadays employed as a notional verb (preserving its full semantic force).

2.1.1.2. The phraseological predicate. It consists of phrases ("locuțiuni; expresii") which form a whole, indivisible from the semantic point of view, sometimes being apt to be replaced by a single verb, and to a great extent depending for their meaning on other words in the phrase than the verb.

e.g., The man gave a violent start. (=The man started violently) (= Omul tresări foarte tare/puternic) (Joseph Conrad, Typhoon)
They usually take a walk before they have breakfast.

Have a good cry, and sleep it over. (Maugham)

2.1.2. THE COMPOUND VERBAL PREDICATE

As shown in 2.1, predicates which, by the use of semiauxiliaries of modality or aspect besides the notional

verb, indicate both the action and the way in which it is performed or its relation to the time-factor, are usually called compound verbal predicates. They are subdivided into modal and aspect verbal predicates.

2.1.2.1. The Compound Modal Verbal Predicate (CMVP)

The compound modal verbal predicate includes a modal verb (or modal phrases with a verb) in a predicative mood + a verbal (non-finite form) of the verb to be conjugated. The modals may be either defective (must, can, should, etc.) or non-defective (to have to, to want, to intend, to wish, etc.). The modal phrases may have various structures - I had/I'd rather, you had/you'd better, I had/I'd /I would sooner, I can't help ... ing, etc.

e.g., We are to meet at seven.

We decided that we would not wait for them any longer.

C'mon, you gonna talk (Am.E. for "Are you going to talk"), or do we have to club it out of you ? (A. Maltz, The Merry-Go-Round)

Note : An opinion rather widespread among grammarians holds such predicates to be in fact simple predicates + direct object (by interpreting the two verbs and their mutual relationship in a light which we feel bound to refute on semantic, grammatical as well as phonetic grounds).

2.1.2.2. The Compound Aspect Verbal Predicate (CAVP)

The compound aspect verbal predicate is made up of a personal form of a verb denoting a lexical aspect and a

non-personal form (a "verbal" in another terminology) of the principal/predicative verb. Therefore, unlike the forms denoting grammatical aspect (common or continuous/progressive) and giving rise to simple verbal predicates (because there is but one idea expressed), the verbs we have to do with in the case of compound aspect verbal predicates, lend to the main verb which they precede the other - lexical ^{Aspective} aspects, changing its semantic content/value :

1) the ingressive or inchoative ^{Inceptive} aspect (such verbs as to begin, to start - indicating the beginning or inception of an action) ;

2) the egressive or terminative aspect (such verbs as to stop, to cease, to finish, to give up - indicating the cessation of an action) ;

3) the continuative or durative aspect (e.g., to continue to go on, to keep (on), - indicating the continuation or prolongation of the action) ;

4) the frequentative, iterative or repetitive aspects (e.g. , would, used to - indicating the repetition or iteration or frequency of an action).

e.g., Have you started working yet ? (inchoative)

At this she got up and began to pace up and down the room. (inchoative - A.J.Cronin,
Hatter's Castle)

Why doesn't he stop beating his wife ?
(terminative)

Go on trying.Keep smiling. (continuative)

He would often begin to tell a story and then forget it. (Two aspects in the same predicate - first frequentative, then inchoative).

That train used to stop here. (frequentative, but also with perfective implications : no continuation in the present).

Note : Of course a more thoroughgoing analysis would reveal a greater number of aspects, as in Russian, perhaps (cf. R. Gandelman, Verbul, Editura Stiințifică, București, 1974- under the heading "Modurile de acțiune" which in fact correspond rather to our term of aspect, i.e. the relation between the action and the time-factor).

2.2. N O M I N A L P R E D I C A T E S

2.2.1. The Nominal Predicate Proper

The Compound Nominal Predicate Proper shows the state or quality of the subject or the evolution of that state or quality.

The Nominal Predicate Proper is made up of a link(ing) verb (= "verb copulă/copulativ") and a predicative (= "nume predicativ").

e.g., Jukes was ready to talk ; it was only time
that seemed to be wanting (Conrad, Typhoon)

The link(ing) verb or copulas (sometimes called semi-auxiliaries because they discharge a grammatical function, either having little meaning of their own or without contributing essentially to the meaning of the predicate) are all

intransitive verbs. They take upon themselves the task of indicating the morphological categories of the verb, therefore the formal elements of the predicate (aspect, voice, mood, tense, person and number) whereas the meaning of the predicate (that is its semantic force) is generally not expressed by them. The predicate depends for its meaning on the predicative.

2.2.1.1. There are several categories of (semi-auxiliary) verbs which can be used as link/linking verbs :

A) Verbs of being or state - for instance to be, to stand, to feel.

e.g., Little Dorrit was a very timid girl.

(Dickens, Little Dorrit)

Of course, it's very sad to have him away.

(Conrad, Typhoon)

The meeting stands adjourned (=ridicăm ședința)

The ground was wet with dew.

B) Verbs of remaining or continuing, like to continue, to keep, to remain, to hold, to stay.

e.g., The rule still holds good.

The weather still continues fine (Wilde, The Importance of Being Earnest)

C) Verbs of becoming or of transition from one state into another (the most numerous category of link(ing)verbs) like : to become, to get, to grow, to turn, to fall, to run, to go, to prove, to turn out, etc.

e.g., We all get upset at times (Galsworthy, Joy)

The Easterly Mountains grew visible.

This river runs dry in summer.

The leaves were turning gold and red.

They were whispering together before they
fell asleep. (Charlotte Brontë, Jane Eyre)

This thing may turn out rotten (Galsworthy, Joy)

D) Verbs of seeming or appearing, which retain a certain modal force : to seem, to appear, to look.

e.g., Aged and bent he looked, and quite bowed down.

And yet he looked a wiser man than in the days
when he wanted nothing but Facts. (Dickens,
Hard Times)

He appeared vexed.

2.2.1.2. A certain variety can also be found among predicatives which may be expressed by various parts of speech in the sphere of nomina :

a) a noun in the nominative or genitive.

e.g., She is an actress.

The book is Mary's.

It is my sister's.

b) predicative adjectives.

e.g., Her face is aglow .

(Note : Such adjectives/adverbs are called in various ways by grammarians - e.g. statives, categories of state, adverbial adjectives, etc.)

It is nice of you to have come.

c) personal, possessive, indefinite or interrogative pronouns.

e.g., "Who's there ?" "It is I / It's me " (now the natural answer to the question)

What are the wages of crime ?

This house is ours.

That is indeed something.

d) a noun, a gerund or pronoun accompanied by a preposition.

e.g., She looked in perfect health.

His daughter looked (exactly) like him.

e) a cardinal or an ordinal numeral.

e.g., We are seven (Wordsworth)

f) an infinitive or infinitival phrase :

e.g., To be or not to be, that is the question.
(Shakespeare)

g) a gerundial phrase

e.g., "What's his hobby ?" "His hobby is hunting the second-hand bookshops."

h) a predicative clause

e.g., The truth is that I don't like it at all.

What you are telling me is exactly what I had expected.

2.2.2. The Double / Complex Predicate

The double predicate is a form, rather widespread in the English language, which hardly finds proper equivalents

in other languages. The prototype is the now famous sentence "The moon rose red" which shows that in fact, in a double predicate we have to do with the contraction of the predicates of two sentences or clauses, easily to be re-constituted (The moon was red when it rose or The moon rose. It was red.)

e.g., The cords of his neck stood out hard and lean.

(Conrad, Typhoon)

Note : In other interpretations, the adjectives following the verb are described either as subject complements (= "Elemente suplimentare pe lîngă subiect") or as predicative adjuncts (= "Elemente predicative suplimentare").

2.2.2.1. Sometimes, the general meaning of this type of predicate is that of a nominal predicate of being, at other times it is one of becoming, of appearing, of remaining, etc.

e.g., That house has long stood empty.

The tents lay silent in the moonlight.

The sun came out hot.

The ground rode soft that morning.

2.2.2.2. In the last example the interpretation is rather controversial, some authors favouring the conception of "predicative adjunct" ("element predicativ suplimentar"). In our opinion, the interpretation is either that in this case the verb to ride functions almost like a link(ing) verb (very much as in the Moon rose red), e.g. I rode that morning. The ground was soft (under the hoofs of my horse) or The

ground was soft / I felt the ground soft when I rode that morning or Riding that morning, I felt the ground (to be) soft (under the hoofs of my horse), etc.

2.3. MIXED TYPES OF PREDICATES

Certain types of Predicates may combine together, giving rise to mixed forms, such as phraseological and nominal predicates, or compound modal and phraseological predicates, compound modal plus aspect verbal predicates (He cannot stop doing it), compound verbal and nominal (I can't help feeling proud), or verbal aspect plus compound nominal predicates (I started being angry with him), etc. These are the most difficult to analyse, but on the other hand we are in duty bound to combat the tendency of describing any complicated form - one including several verbs - as a mixed type of predicates. Here are some examples of mixed predicates.

e.g., Rainy days can be unpleasant (compound modal verbal plus nominal predicate)

To be sure I will give you a call as I pass
(compound modal verbal + phraseological predicate)

I began to feel hungry (compound aspect verb + nominal predicate)

3.1. The general conclusion about English predicates is that certain difficulties arise out of the great extension which is given to phraseology in the English language ; other difficulties arise out of the frequency of verbs which take

two objects or of verbs which require a completion / adjunct of the factitive or resultative nature.

e.g., And then she lulled me asleep. (Keats, La Belle Dame Sans Merci)

Pluck leaves off.

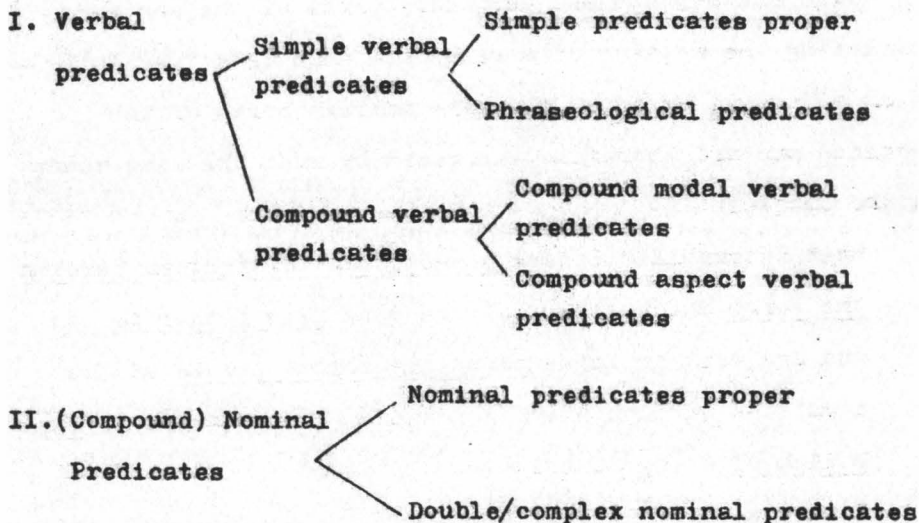
3.2. This will be better discussed in connection with the object, the following examples illustrating peculiarities in the use of the complex direct objects which give rise to confusions about the predicate :

e.g., There was a German officer at Webb's with whom we used to joke and of whom a story was got to be believed in the army. (Thackeray, Henry Esmond)

With these thoughts and tears the lad passed that night away, until he wept himself to sleep. (Thackeray, Henry Esmond)

I might get you turned out of house and home and cut off with a shilling any day. (George Eliot, Silas Marner)

4.o. The above classification of predicates can be summarized in the following synoptic table :



III. Mixed predicates :

- e.g., - compound modal verbal + nominal predicates
- compound modal verbal + phraseological predicate
 - compound aspect verbal + nominal predicate
 - compound aspect verbal + phraseological predicate
 - simple verbal + nominal predicate etc.

VII THE OBJECTS : DIRECT, INDIRECT
AND PREPOSITIONAL

o.1. The objects are secondary parts of the sentence completing the meaning of a verb or - much less frequently - of an adjective or noun. They are nominal parts of the sentence and are therefore expressed by much the same means as the subjects :

When I travelled I took a particular delight in hearing the songs and fables that are come from father to son and are most in vogue among the common people of the countries through which I passed. (Joseph Addison, The Ballad of Chevy Chase)

I have always made you my companions and friends, and allowed you perfect freedom to do and say whatever you liked, so long as you liked what I could approve of.
(Lady Britomart in G.B.Shaw's Major Barbara)

Nouns, pronouns, infinitives, gerunds, phrases and clauses have been used in these sentences to complete the meaning of a verb, either predicative or not. Many of these verbs cannot form a meaningful predicate if they are not followed by an object (e.g. to wish, to allow).

o.2. There are also objects which may or must round off the meaning of adjectives as well as nouns :

e.g.. He's not worth wrangling about. (G.B.Shaw,
John Bull's Other Island)

We are all confident of his success.

We are dreadfully sorry for her.

My surprise at seeing her was great.

There is hardly any certainty of/about his arrival.

There's no use speculating about it.

(Albert Maltz, Peace on Earth)

o.3. In English we distinguish the following kinds of objects :

a) Direct objects (in the accusative or object case) generally corresponding to the Romanian "complemente directe" - with the exception of the complex ones which are usually rendered into Romanian by phrases or other means.

e.g., I saw him in the street.

b) Indirect objects (in the dative or object case), in our opinion restricted to utilization after transitive verbs denoting the conveyance/transmission especially of some object or abstract notion, and usually expressed by a (+ human) noun or pronoun.

e.g., She wrote me a letter and asked me to send some money to her.

c) Prepositional objects ^{in the accusative} including items that correspond to the Romanian complements of agent, of relation, of means, the sociative and instrumental ones, as well as any other complement formed of a noun or noun substitute preceded by a preposition - e.g., of relation - apart from the indirect objects (and of course discrete from both adverbial modifiers

and attributes).

e.g., Şi cea dintâi şcolăriţă a fost însăşi Smărăndiţa popii, o zgîtie de copilă ageră la minte şi aşa de silitoare, de întrecăa mai pe toţi băieţii şi din carte dar şi din nebunii.

(I.Creangă)

Other examples of "complemente de relaţie" :

Lat în spate ; strîns la pungă ; scump la vorbă ; scump la vedere.

Note : Naturally, the Romanian "complemente circumstanţiale" correspond to the English adverbial modifiers.

1.0. THE DIRECT OBJECT

The direct object is a secondary part of the sentence indicating the person, thing or abstract notion that directly receives, suffers or attracts the action of a transitive verb (simple or complex) as well as of a transitive verbal phrase. The direct object always stands in the accusative case. It answers the questions whom ? or what ? Here are a few examples from Mark Twain's Encounter with an Interviewer :

How did you happen to meet Aaron Burr ? At his burial.

I don't understand it at all.

Some said he was dead, some said he wasn't.

What did you think ?

You buried him, without knowing whether he was dead or not ?

I never heard anything like this.

The words Aaron Burr, it, what, him, anything, the clauses he was dead, he wasn't, whether he was dead or not are placed in the accusative case, they answer the questions whom ? or what ? they follow close upon transitive verbs - they are the direct objects of these verbs.

1.1. Unlike certain authors of grammar and dictionaries, we do not share the view that transitive verbs may be used "absolutely", that is without being followed by a direct object. We adopt a strictly functional point of view, conceiving as transitive those verbs whose action is immediately directed towards a direct object in the accusative and intransitive those which have no such object. Intransitive verbs form the predicate by themselves, which transitive ones do not do. For instance, the verb to write is transitive in He is writing a letter and intransitive in He writes - with the meaning of He is a writer / an author. (Therefore not a transitive verb used absolutely or elliptically).

1.2. Further on, this is closely bound up with the interdependence between words and their contexts to the effect that a transitive verb cannot exist as such without a direct object - its very raison d'être.

1.3. As is the case of any two languages compared, the situation of the direct object is not identical in Romanian and English, because not all Romanian transitive verbs are transitive in English as well. "L-a visat astă-noapte" is rendered in English by She dreamed of him last night.

"Ai ascultat concertul ?" - Did you listen to the concert ?

On the other hand, Answer (him) his questions has an intransitive equivalent in Romanian : "Răspunde-i la întrebări" or "Răspunde la ce te întreabă". And so has the sentence I enjoyed her letter - "M-am bucurat de scrisoarea ei". A case in point, and very frequent too, is the pattern connected with the verb to like which is rendered in Romanian by constructions with the dative case : We all liked it very much - "Ne-a plăcut foarte mult la toți." (cf. the final part of the lecture on the subject).

In both Romanian and English there are baffling expressions, which seem to infringe the rule of constructing the direct object in the accusative case : Whose work do you like best ? (apparent genitive) "Si mănîncă fata la plăcinte" (apparent prepositional object).

As we have seen, however, unlike Romanian, English grammar records also direct objects taken by certain adjectives such as busy, worth - e.g., He was busy ferreting out ... one fact and another. (Th. Dreiser, Will You Walk into My Parlour ?) ; I think it is worth speculating about (Albert Maltz, Peace on Earth).

A tendency is noticeable in contemporary English, of replacing certain intransitive verbs (for instance to dance, to cry) by a transitive construction (such as to have a dance, to have a walk) containing an almost meaningless transitive verb followed by a direct object - a noun which carries the actual semantic force or value of the idiom.

Difficulties in identifying the direct object may occur in such sentences as : He wiped the towel all over his face - shifted from : He wiped all his face with the towel (and interpreted by some grammarians as a predicative adjunct).

A puzzling situation, both in Romanian and English, arises out of the ellipsis of prepositions in temporal phrases :

e.g., They were only come now to stay a few weeks =
for a few weeks (Charlotte Brontë, Jane Eyre)
I waited an hour and a half and then I went
away.

The adverbial phrases a few weeks, an hour and a half could, at first sight, be mistaken for direct objects, but the question how long ? - which these phrases answer - will clear up the matter. Wait a moment = "asteaptă o clipă" is entirely different from Wait for a (suitable, etc.) moment = "Asteaptă clipa / o clipă potrivită, etc."

All these elements of contrast insistently point to the necessity for observation, reflection and analysis in order to avoid mistakes in usage and translation.

2.0. WAYS OF EXPRESSING THE DIRECT OBJECT

Since its nature is similar to that of the subject, the direct object can be expressed by similar grammatical elements. In fact the same will generally apply to the prepositional object as well. (Most examples are culled from John Bull's Other Island by George Bernard Shaw) :

2.1. By a noun (common or verbal), by a proper name :

e.g., We must close the public houses at all costs.

I don't see the joke.

How will you persuade Cornelius Doyle ?

It saves thinking.

It saves working.

2.2. By a pronoun :

e.g., Mr. Doyle uses it as a paper-weight.

Shall I fetch him, Sir ?

I'll tell you what.

He didn't do anything.

2.3. By a substantivized adjective or past participle :

e.g., He greatly helped the blind and the wounded.

2.4. By a numeral :

e.g., I offered him four, but he only took two.

2.5. By an infinitive or an infinitival phrase :

e.g., I should like to explain.

Don't you want to see your country again ?

You Irish men certainly do know how to drink.

I'll show you how to do it.

2.6. By a gerundial phrase :

e.g., I like riding a bicycle.

2.7. By any part of speech :

e.g., Say when.

Say half-and-half.

2.8. By a group of words (including such constructions as the accusative + infinitive etc. - cf. 3.2.5.):

e.g., Try a whisky and soda.

And she sang this song of the shirt (Thomas Hood, The Song of the Shirt)

I thought I'd just drop in and say how do you do ?

You won't be able to adopt the I-didn't-know-anything-about-it attitude.

2.9. By a subordinate object clause :

e.g., What will I do if he decides to go down, I don't know.

I wish I could see him only once to know what I have against me. (E.Hemingway, The Old Man and the Sea).

3.0. CLASSIFICATION OF DIRECT OBJECTS

Like other parts of the sentence, direct objects can be classified in terms of semantic content / force / value and of composition / structure.

3.1.(A) Classification in point of Semantic Content - division into : significant, impersonal, cognate.

3.1.1. Significant / meaningful (the usual kind of direct objects)

e.g., Students play a vital role in the democratic youth movement.

The members heard the minutes and approved them.

3.1.2. Impersonal / non-significant / meaningless/ formal

A formal direct object is generally expressed by

the pronoun it.

e.g., Suffice it to recall the Commonwealth Economic Conference of 1958.

3.1.3. Cognate (Internal) - The cognate object accompanies verbs which are normally intransitive (to sleep, to dress, to live, to die, to laugh, to smile) and therefore take no object. As a rule it is called cognate because the nouns which express it are related (cognate) to the verb in meaning and, generally, also in etymology :

e.g., Into the street the Piper stepped

Smiling first a little smile.

(Robert Browning, The Pied Piper of Hamelin)

I slept the sleep of the pure at heart.

(Maugham, Smith)

The ploughman homewards plods his weary way.

(Thomas Gray, Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard)

We notice that as often as not, the nouns forming the cognate object are modified by attributes (I dreamed a fantastic/horrible/ or a most pleasant dream ; he died an heroic/noble/terrible/quiet death, etc.) and so the semantic value of the cognate object turns into that of an intensifier. For instance in : He then laughed his most horrible laugh (Oscar Wilde, The Canterville Ghost) the word laugh plays rather the role of an adverbial modifier with an emphatic force - greater than in : He laughed most horribly. Therefore the cognate objects seem to be used as

a stylistic device, even in everyday speech, by substituting a unique direct object of an intransitive verb for the more hackneyed adverbial modifiers.

3.2.(B.) Classification in point of structure/composition:
division into simple, coordinated, compound, double and complex.

3.2.1. Simple objects are expressed by a single word, possibly determined and modified by attributes or even by a whole attributive clause :

e.g., Read it to me.

This old person tore his paper (rupse ziarul)..

and broke several things with his cane.

I accepted the terms he offered and took

his place. (Mark Twain, How I Edited an

Agricultural Paper)

3.2.2. Coordinated objects are two or several nouns or noun-equivalents in the accusative (connected either by conjunctions or asyndetically) discharging an identical syntactical function in relation to a transitive verb or verbal phrase. These objects are homogeneous parts of the sentence (therefore homogeneous direct objects) :

e.g., Wherefore, Bees of England, forge

Many a weapon, chain and scourge,

That these stingless drones may spoil

The forced produce of your toil ?

Have ye leisure, comfort, calm,

Shelter, food, love's gentle balm ?

(Shelley, Song to the Men of England)

3.2.3. Compound objects - similar in structure and function to co-ordinated objects but dissimilar in that the two or several nouns refer to only one person, object or abstract notion :

e.g., Do you like my bedroom and working-room
(combined) ?

I sometimes hate my friend and adviser for
being so frank with me.

I resent your question and innuendo.

Note : Subh objects are rather infrequent and examples do not abound in literature.

3.2.4. Double objects - designating the direct objects connected with the same transitive verb, yet answering different, separate questions - whom ? and what ? They usually follow a limited number of verbs such as to ask, to answer, to forgive, to envy.

e.g., Ask me no questions.

I envied (him) his competence.

Forgive (me) my curiosity.

Note : Although the verb to call is sometimes included in this list, we prefer to treat such examples as

They called me the Pied Piper (Browning) in terms of factitive verbs taking a complex object (cf. 3.2.5.5)

3.2.5. Complex objects. These are objective constructions which complete the meaning of a very long range of transitive verbs ; what characterizes these constructions is the fact that they include two inseparable (though heterogeneous) parts

- a nominal part - an object proper (a noun, proper name or pronoun in the accusative case) indissolubly linked with another part which completes it (usually a non-finite form of the verb, but also an adjective, noun or adverb):

e.g., As the sentence fell from my lips I could see
the relief come, I could see the drawn
muscles relax, and the anxiety go out of
the face, and rest and peace steal over the
features ...

I heard a man say : "Look at his eye".

I thought I would call and make the things
perfectly certain.

I was in circumstances that made salary an
object. (Mark Twain, How I Edited an
Agricultural Paper)

(Note : In the opinion of many authors this would be a
"predicative adjunct" - cf. Romanian "element
predicativ suplimentar").

In all cases the answer to such a question as What did I
hear ? would require both parts of the complex object a man
and say, which could on the other hand be paraphrased by
"I heard a man who spoke and he said ..." The separation of
the two parts of the complex object would be out of the
question - or at least would involve a total change of
meaning, especially in such examples as "I hate you to go
away" (obviously "I hate you" expresses a contrary feeling)
or "I wish you'd have the table cleared" or "Do you wish the

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case to be settled here ?" (these two sentences become meaningless if we split the object), "I'd like you to refrain from saying such things."

Certain sentences may be delusive when we have two objects answering different questions as in "They envy (me) my happiness" (Whom do they envy ? - Me; and What do they envy ? - My happiness), therefore a double object, although me does not always occur. On the other hand, in "She permitted us to sit by it" (What did she permit ? - To sit by it ; and - at least hypothetically - (To) whom did she permit it ? - to us or us - therefore a direct and an indirect object).

In fact we are far from enjoying a consensus of grammarians on this matter (many preferring the notion of predicative adjunct (= "element predicativ suplimentar") so these comments should be regarded as just one of the several possible interpretations.

3.2.5.o. Complex objects are formed by means of various constructions, the most frequent of which are the accusative with the infinitive and the accusative with the participle - indefinite and past. They are taken as objects especially by certain categories of verbs, prominent among them being verbs denoting perception, mental or emotional activities, determination and coercion (cf. annexes to this lecture, under 5.1 and 5.2).

Roughly speaking there are two main situations : the second part of the complex object designates either an action

(through an infinitive or indefinite participle) following a verb which denotes perceptive, mental or emotional activities, or the result of an action - colour, shape, state, quality, position - (expressed through a noun, adjective, past participle or adverb) following a verb which denotes order, request, coercion, determination.

3.2.5.1. Out of all constructions through which the complex object may be expressed, the accusative with the infinitive is the most important on account of both its frequency and the great number of verbs which can take this type of complex object (in fact all categories of verbs ever accompanied by such an object - cf. 5.1 and 5.2)

3.2.5.1.1. Verbs of feeling or perception (in Latin called verbe sentiendi) are followed by the short infinitive after the accusative :

As that moment she felt him stop.

Exceptions are the verbs of observation : to notice, to note, to observe (possibly because they are rather "conscious" than merely "sensorial").

We all noticed him to be rather out of sorts.

He noted his clothes to be well cut ...(Galsworthy,
The Man of Property)

3.2.5.1.2. The accusative with the long infinitive is taken as a complex object by most other categories of verbs : the above-mentioned verbs of perception, those denoting understanding, consideration, belief, desire, affection and any

other mental or emotional activities, permission (with the exception of to let) as well as request, order, persuasion, determination (with the exception of the verbs to have and to make which are followed by the accusative + short infinitive).

e.g., Do you want us to go and support the strike ?

(Albert Maltz, Peace on Earth)

He sent a message ... desiring his son to come to him directly.

Never knew her to do such things before ...

Although I am so anxious to learn because he wished me to , I'm afraid I don't like it.

(Examples from Dickens, Hard Times)

3.2.5.1.3. To summarize, most verbs taking a complex object can be accompanied by an accusative with the long infinitive, the exceptions being some verbs of perception, the verbs to make, to have and to let :

e.g., I saw him go (...) Let me know at once (...)

You should make him stop shouting (...) The trustees would rather have that happen.

(Examples from Albert Maltz, Peace on Earth)

3.2.5.2. The accusative with the indefinite (or present) participle is also very common after verbs denoting perception, mental or emotional activities (among the last, especially desire) :

e.g., I saw him running.

I can't stand a door banging. (Conrad, Typhoon)

We don't want you coming here and spying on us.

(John Galsworthy, Strife)

3.2.5.2.1. Analysing the difference between 1) the accusative with the short infinitive and 2) the accusative with the indefinite participle used as complex objects after verbs of perception, we notice that the former merely states the fact, whereas the latter denotes the action viewed / followed / watched / perceived in its progress. The Romanian translations also differ : I saw him enter the house = Am văzut că a intrat în casă ; I watched him approaching the house = L-am văzut apropiindu-se de casă / L-am observat cum se apropia de casă. (Cf. the continuous/progressive aspect of various moods, expressed with the help of the indefinite participle).

3.2.5.3. The accusative with the past participle is used with a resultative meaning after verbs expressing causal or causative relations, coercion, desire, order. Most frequently these constructions follow the verbs to have or to get with the meaning of making, asking, causing somebody to do something or with the meaning of to cause, to suffer, to see, to experience, to undergo.

e.g., I had a new pair of shoes made. (to render Romanian sentences like "m-am tuns/coafat/ras, etc." ad litteram makes no sense in English).

They had him brought before them at one.

I have no desire to get my head busted.

(Albert Maltz, Peace on Earth)

I should but knock at the door to have it shut
in my face. (Charlotte Brontë, Jane Eyre)

3.2.5.4. The accusative with an adjective is a construction that may often have a resultative force, when placed after causative verbs as well as after verbs denoting mental activity and other verbs :

e.g., Why not try to make it as effective as possible.

(Albert Maltz, Peace on Earth)

I suppose you think it brave, then.

(J. Galsworthy, Strife)

They think us dull, they think us dead.

Ernest Jones, Song of the Wage-Slave)

3.2.5.5. The accusative with a noun (they appointed him chairman, I think it a great success) follow causative and factitive verbs, as well as other types of verbs. After verbs denoting mental activity it may have (like the accusative with an adjective) the attributive force deriving from the clipping of an object clause with a nominal predicate :

e.g., I think that it is a great success → I think it a great success.

3.2.6. Two gerundial constructions may also express a complex object :

A) the genitive with the gerund

e.g., I appreciate your coming over.

(Albert Maltz, Peace on Earth)

B) the accusative with the gerund, very often used colloquially instead of the former.

e.g., I appreciate you coming over.

3.2.5.7. The accusative with an adverb :

e.g., I ordered him away

which seems to have resulted from the contraction of the
accusative with the infinitive :

e.g., I ordered him to go away.

Other examples may indicate a resultative meaning : She
cried her eyes out. (Again interpretations differ - cf.
introduction to 1.5.5).

Note : A more extensive treatment of the problem of
complex objects, as well as lists of means of expressing them
and of verbs taking them, can be found in Gramatica limbii
engleze of the English Department, Editura Didactică și Pe-
dagogică, București, 1962, Vol.11., pages 215-224 (but see
also 5.1. and 5.2.)

4.1. By analysing the various kinds of complex objects
we realize that they provide the greatest amount of
differences from Romanian in the whole chapter of the direct
object. A brief survey of the examples of direct objects given
will point to the great frequency of simple and complex
objects (out of all categories).

4.2. As regards the position of the direct object in
the sentence, we should remark that since the direct object
is a necessary complement to and the raison d'être of
transitive verbs (which are essentially verbs of incomplete
predication and may be said to live for and through their
direct object) it is closely connected with the verb and is

seldom separated from it by anything else, except by a short (non-prepositional) indirect object.

Note : This does not apply to direct object clauses.

4.3. By changes from the active to the passive voice, direct objects of all kinds may become subjects of passive constructions (cf. lecture on the Subject). Naturally, some complex objects turn into complex subjects (nominative + long infinitive, nominative + indefinite participle).

5.0. The considerations and exemplification regarding the manifold aspects of complex objects (3.2.5) may be summarized graphically in the following tables :

5.1. Verbs more frequently employed with a complex object and the construction(s) through which the latter is more usually expressed :

acknowledge	accusative + long infinitive
admit	accusative + long infinitive
advise	accusative + long infinitive
allow	accusative + long infinitive
ask	accusative + long infinitive
assume	accusative + long infinitive
believe	accusative + long infinitive
boil	accusative + adjective
cause	accusative + long infinitive
choose	accusative + noun
command	accusative + long infinitive
compel	accusative + long infinitive

conceive	accusative + long infinitive
consider	accusative + long infinitive, or + noun, or + adjective
declare	accusative + long infinitive, or + noun, or + adjective, or + adverb
deny	accusative + long infinitive
desire	accusative + long infinitive
elect	accusative + noun
excuse	genitive + Gerund, accusative + Gerund
expect	accusative + long infinitive
feel	accusative + short infinitive
find	accusative + adjective
force	accusative + long infinitive
get	accusative + long infinitive, or + past participle
hate	accusative + long infinitive, or genitive + Gerund
have	accusative + short infinitive, or + past participle
hear	accusative + short infinitive, or + participle in -ing, or + past participle
imagine	accusative + long infinitive
induce	accusative + long infinitive

keep	accusative + adjective, or + adverb
know	accusative + long infinitive
let	accusative + short infinitive
like	accusative + long infinitive, or + participle in -ing, or + past participle genitive + Gerund
make	accusative + short infinitive (exception, long infinitive), or + adjective
mean	accusative + long infinitive
mind	genitive or accusative + Gerund
name	accusative + noun
notice	accusative + long infinitive, or + participle in -ing
observe	accusative + short infinitive, or + participle in -ing
order	accusative + long infinitive, or + adverb
paint	accusative + adjective
perceive	accusative + long infinitive
permit	accusative + long infinitive, or + adverb
persuade	accusative + long infinitive
prefer	accusative + adjective, or + adverb

proclaim	accusative + long infinitive, or + noun
pronounce	accusative + long infinitive, or + noun
prove	accusative + long infinitive, or + adjective, or + noun
recommend	accusative + long infinitive
request	accusative + long infinitive
see	accusative + short infinitive, or + participle in -ing
set	accusative + participle in -ing
shake	accusative + adjective
suffer	accusative + long infinitive
suppose	accusative + long infinitive
sweep	accusative + adjective, or + prepositional completion
think	accusative + adjective, or + noun
trust	accusative + adverb
understand	accusative + long infinitive
want	accusative + long infinitive, or + participle in -ing, or + past participle
watch	accusative + short infinitive, or + participle in -ing
wish	accusative + long infinitive

5.2 The above list is not exhaustive ; on the other hand it may be condensed if we think of grouping the verbs into semantic categories :

<u>Verbs denoting :</u>	<u>are followed by :</u>
Perception	accusative + short infinitive, or + participle in -ing, or + past participle
Understanding, insight	accusative + long infinitive, or + participle in -ing
Mental activity	accusative + long infinitive, or + noun
Feelings/ sentiments	accusative + long infinitive, genitive or accusative + Gerund, accusative + adverb
Will, wish, desire	accusative + long infinitive, or + participle in -ing, or + past participle, or + adverb
Requests, demands	accusative + long infinitive
Determination, coercion, persuasion	accusative + long infinitive, or + participle in -ing, or + prepositional completion/ adjunct
(exception: <u>to make</u>)	accusative + short infinitive)
Commands	accusative + long infinitive, or + past participle, or + adverb, or + prepositional completion/adjunct

Permission	accusative + long infinitive, or + adverb
(exception <u>to let</u>)	accusative + short infinitive)
Active verbs	accusative + noun, or + adjective
Causative verbs	accusative + past participle.

VIII. THE INDIRECT OBJECT

1.0. The indirect object is that secondary part of the sentence which completes the meaning of a verb, indicating the person (or sometimes the thing or abstract notion) whom (or which) the action of that verb affects/influences/reaches indirectly. Therefore it shows the person / (more rarely) the thing / the concept indirectly receiving the action of the verb, benefiting by that action or being destined to receive the object of the action.

1.1. The indirect object is in the dative case and answers the question (to) whom ? or - much less frequently - (to) what ?

1.2. The indirect object is usually employed together with the direct one.

e.g., Leave her to me. (Hardy, Tess of the d'Urbervilles)

As President of this University I give welcome to all of them (Maltz, Peace on Earth).

You must give the furniture another polish / varnish, etc.

I will give your request my most favourable consideration.

1.3. Nevertheless, there are also cases of utilization of the indirect object without the direct one (which is generally implied) especially after verbs which are normally transitive but - more or less frequently - also intransitive: to write, to read, to sing, or vice-versa - eg., to speak, etc.

e.g., Thou art a scholar ; speak to it, Horatio.

(Shakespeare, Hamlet)

I was sitting in my cabin, writing home to my sister. (John Reed, Mac-America)

I understand you to have been in the habit of reading to your father ? (Dickens, Hard Times)

2.1. In our conception, in English the indirect object follows especially those transitive verbs whose meaning is usually that of transmission, or conveying something - either concrete (an object, animal, etc.) or abstract (information, advice, a notion, an idea, etc.)

Of course, the utilization of the indirect object without the direct object seems to infirm this statement, but the direct object is always implied in such constructions as Write to me, Talk to me, etc. On the other hand, after such verbs as to wire, to cable, to telephone, etc. the utilization of a direct object (to wire a telegram, to cable a telegram / a cable, etc.) would be redundant / pleonastic, and so the direct object which is normally implied (and sometimes used explicitly) - is "to cable / to wire a message to somebody", etc.

2.2. The indirect object is built up with the preposition to, characteristic of the dative case (or with the preposition for). But if it is formed of a single word - and especially when it is expressed by a personal pronoun or a proper name - the preposition is omitted. The construction I wrote him a letter yesterday is preferred to the construction I wrote a letter to him yesterday. The former construction

is very often employed in contemporary English because (a) the objects designating persons naturally precede those which designate things or abstract notions and (b) spoken English manifests a preference for shorter constructions :

e.g., We owe you many apologies, Ma'am (Dickens,
Pickwick Papers)

I'll just read you a few of the leaders
(= "article de fond") I wrote at that
time. (Ibid.)

2.3. As we have seen, in English the indirect object is of two kinds : (A) long / prepositional indirect object (2.5) - preceded by the prepositions to or (occasionally) for and (B) short / non-prepositional indirect object - unaccompanied by a preposition - extensively used in conversation. The emphasis which is brought about by the utilization of the prepositional indirect object (sometimes implying contrast) is usually deliberate :

e.g., I've brought a message to you (implication:
"it is confidential" - as against the
unmarked/unemphatic form - I've brought you
a message).

I've brought a present for you (implication -
"it is only for you and not for somebody else"
- as against the unmarked/unemphatic/normal
form - I've brought you a present).

2.4. On the other hand, together with the stressing of the indirect object (which is usually unwelcome - or even

wrong) such a construction may lead to unseasonable / undesirable and even impolite effects :

e.g., I've 'brought a 'present for 'her [aiv
brɔ:t ə preznt fə hə] (possible implication:
- 'you 'shouldn't 'touch it) in marked
contrast with the correct neutral form
I've 'brought her a 'present [aiv brɔ:t
ə ə 'preznt]

2.5. The prepositional indirect object. The utilization of the indirect object in its prepositional form is required by contemporary English grammar mainly in a few situations listed below :

2.5.1. When the speaker or writer wants to emphasize the indirect object or to place it in contrast with another indirect object (explicit or implicit).

e.g., I shall show the letter to you (but not to her).

I've brought flowers for her (but not for you)

I gave this advice to the daughter (but not to the mother).

Note : As in most cases the indirect object includes the feature (+ human), usually it is contrast of person that is achieved.

2.5.2. When the direct object is expressed by a pronoun, while the indirect one is expressed by a noun :

e.g., He gave them to his mother.

She sent him to the manager.

2.5.3. When both objects are expressed by personal pronouns :

e.g., Show them to me.

Send her to them.

Exception : Give it me/him/her - possible in colloquial speech.

2.5.4. When the indirect object is placed at the head of the sentence (in the interrogative form),

e.g., To which of the boys did you give the sweets ?

To whom did you lend it ? (colloquially :

Whom did you lend it to ?)

Emphatic declarative sentences may also have the indirect object at their head (thus expressing contrast of person - cf. 2.4 and 2.5.1

e.g., To him I gave the order, no to you.

2.5.5. When the indirect object heads a relative attributive clause,

e.g., The boy to whom I gave the letter has lost it.

The man to whom you addressed your request was chosen very unwisely.

2.5.6. After the following verbs (which may have to be learnt by heart - especially the most frequently used ones) : to announce, to ascribe, to attribute, to communicate, to contribute, to declare, to dedicate, to deliver, to describe, to devote, to dictate, to disclose, to explain, to hint, to indicate, to interpret, to introduce, to open, to owe, to point out, to present, to propose, to relate,

to repeat, to report, to return, to say, to speak, to submit,
to suggest, to talk, to translate.

e.g., He ascribed the mistake to her.

He very often contributes articles to it.

He explained the theory to the students (or
He explained to the students what the theory
was) but never ^XHe explained the students
the theory.

Note : Special attention seems to be necessary for the
verb: to explain which is an ample source of mistakes for
Romanians, as its usage differs in Romanian and English.
Such constructions as ^X"explain me something" or ^X"He
explained us the lesson" are not accepted by English grammar.
(Correctly : He explained something to me, He explained the
lesson to us).

Mistakes are also made (in the elementary stage) in
connection with the verbs to say (necessarily followed by
"to + ind. obj.") and to tell (which favours rather the short
indirect object).

3.1. The position of the indirect object.

Although theoretically the direct object should
precede the indirect one (as the former is organically linked
to the transitive verb or phrase of the predicate) in fact in
standard English (and particularly in conversation) this
happens only in those infrequent cases when the indirect
object is accompanied by attributes (occasionally becoming
longer than the direct one).

Quite often, therefore, the short / non-prepositional indirect object takes place III in the sentence, preceding the direct one which takes place IV (cf. the section on word order and the table in A.Bantas Dictionar de buzunar englez-român si român-englez, 1968, 1974).

This may be explained by the following reasons :

3.1.1. In point of form, in English the shorter element precedes the longer one, in order to ensure perfect fluency of delivery, and a more logical stressing of the nucleus / focus of the utterance in terms of intonation, of its components and of logical motivation.

3.1.2. Position IV (after the direct object) gives the indirect object at least some degree of emphasis or contrast not always required or wished for (cf.2.3, 2.4 and 2.5.1 supra).

3.1.3. In point of focus, nomina denoting persons - therefore including the (+ human) feature - take precedence of those lacking this feature.

3.2. An exception is the placing of the indirect object unaccompanied by a preposition after the direct object, if the latter is expressed by the pronoun it :

e.g., Give it me.

Yet, even in that case, there are examples when the preposition is preserved with the indirect object :

e.g., Give it to him. (Maltz, Peace on Earth)

3.3. Moreover the preposition for is very seldom dropped :

e.g., I bring fresh showers for the thirsting flowers
(Shelley, The Cloud)

4.1. In point of syntactical analysis, the presence of the prepositions to or for in front of an object may give rise to difficulties in discriminating between indirect objects and prepositional objects.

4.1.1. The first criterion which we propose is that of the essence of the indirect object in English, that of "receiving end" or "target" of a verb of conveyance or transmission - normally transitive.

4.1.2. There is also a formal criterion, namely that of the possibility to transform the prepositional construction into a non prepositional construction, which is permitted only for the indirect object.

For instance, in the sentences :

I'm appealing to you to help us. (Maltz, Peace on Earth)

or I want you to know what this chance means to me

(Mitchell Wilson, Live with Lightning)

to you and to me are prepositional objects because the verbs in the sentence (to appeal, to mean) do not convey or transmit anything to them, because the respective persons do not benefit or suffer by the action, and because on the other hand, from the formal point of view, they cannot be transformed into (non-prepositional) dative constructions, as we can do in changing tell the truth to me into tell me the truth or I offered a chair to him into I offered him a chair (which moreover can be changed into passive sentences with the dative indirect object becoming the subject - cf.5.1).

4.1.3. Therefore, in such cases, the preposition is required by another type of relation than the dative one - usually confusions arise in connection with the prepositional object of relation - or it is inherent in the verb itself - verbs with obligatory preposition.

4.1.4. Another example hard to interpret would be :

She won't say no to going (Hardy, Tess of the
D'Urbevilles)

in which going is not the indirect object of the verb to say, as it may seem, because it is merely a part of the idiom to say no to something (= "a refuza ceva") - and because it does not represent a person benefiting by the effects of the action or suffering from them - in a sentence like I said no to him (where him is the receiver of the answer).

4.1.5. The numerous verbs followed by to as an obligatory preposition provide another source of difficulties of interpretation :

e.g., Britain gears her trade more and more to
the dollar market.

The verb to gear with the meaning of to direct is necessarily employed with the preposition to and cannot be conceived without it, although there is no dative relation to be thought of.

4.1.6. Many people usually consider that the verb to belong is followed by an indirect object, yet there are

several elements which contradict this statement : it does not involve a genuine dative relation, while in contemporary British and especially American English it may be followed by other prepositions besides to (to belong in, to belong with, to belong among) as well as by adverbs of place, indicating proper localization ("it belongs here", "Sailors belong ships", etc.) a notion which has no connection with the dative proper, but only with dative locativus .

4.1.7. Another moot point is raised by constructions in which the indirect object appears in the form of a reflexive pronoun :

e.g., I told myself that I was not right.

The confusion with a possible reflexive verb "to tell oneself" should be avoided by comparing "I told myself" with "He told me" - therefore the presence of the non-prepositional indirect object appears quite clear.

5.1. As shown in greater detail in the section on the subject, one of the passive transformations in English turns the indirect object of active sentences into the subject of the passive one :

A₁ Yesterday he sent ^{IO} me ^{DO} some money.

or

A₂ Yesterday he sent ^{DO} some money ^{IO} to me.

may change into

P₁ Yesterday I was sent some money (by him)

or into

P₂ Some money was sent me (by him) yesterday.

IX. THE PREPOSITIONAL OBJECT

o.1. The prepositional object is a part of the sentence often ignored ; considering the divergencies prevalent in the relatively few grammars which do discuss it, we may say that its definition is easier to give by differentiation.

Some people consider it a peculiar case of the indirect object - probably under the influence of the traditional grammar of other languages (including Romanian).

o.2. In Romanian grammar, the prepositional object is not mentioned as a category or as a part of the sentence. For instance, in the earlier edition of the Academy Grammar of Romanian, the objects preceded by prepositions which we can easily group under the more general heading of prepositional object, were treated in several discrete sections between the chapter on the indirect object and that on adverbial modifiers ("complemente circumstanțiale"). On the other hand in the new version of the same grammar of the Romanian language, the respective objects are introduced first separately into the category "complement de agent" and then are listed among "complemente circumstanțiale".

o.3. In our view (sometimes differing widely from that of other authors) English prepositional objects roughly correspond to some of the Romanian "complemente" (grouped or not under a common heading by various Romanian grammars): "complement de agent", "complement (circumstanțial) instru-

mental", "complement (circumstanțial) sociativ", "complement (circumstanțial) de relație", "complement (circumstanțial) opozitional", "complement (circumstanțial) cumulativ", complement (circumstanțial) de excepție".

o.4. In English prepositional objects are grouped in a rather formal way, on the basis of the idea that they are made up of nouns or noun equivalents preceded by various prepositions.

Yet, the definition of the prepositional object depends upon other differentiations which sometimes require subtle precisions.

e.g., The books are in the bag. may answer either the question "in what ?" - therefore corresponding to our notion of a prepositional object (because the very question includes a preposition) - or the question "where ?" - therefore clearly referring to an adverbial modifier of place.

He went to the doctor — may answer either the question "to whom ?" - referring to a prepositional object - or (less logically) the question "where ?" - for an adverbial modifier of place, more acceptable if we had had the form "to the doctor's", etc. (of course, construing it as an indirect object, therefore in the dative, corresponds to no logic, and even less so to our linking the indirect object to transitive verbs alone).

Such examples - out of a multitude of similar cases - show that the interpretation of such a phrase including a preposition depends on various factors, sometimes including intention or the speaker's/writer's viewpoint, therefore a matter of "focus" or "mental/logical/emotional stress".

o.5. In order to identify the prepositional object, we must first make sure that the part of the sentence which we analyse does not discharge any of the specific functions of another category or part of the sentence. There are only certain indications which are specific (partly also because of the divergencies among grammarians).

o.6. Moreover we should avoid taking for a prepositional object any prepositional phrase ; the latter may discharge such a role, but also that of an adverbial modifier (of various kinds), of an attribute, etc.

1.o. The prepositional object can be defined as a secondary part of the sentence completing the meaning of a verb in the sentence (not necessarily the predicate), of a noun or of an adjective and consisting of a noun or of a noun-equivalent preceded by a preposition.

It is to be identified only by means of a non-specific question (unlike those for other parts of the sentence), namely a question made up of a preposition + an interrogative pronoun : "By whom ?", "Through what ?", "In what ?", "To which ?", "About what", "With whom ?", "Against what ?",

"In whose favour ?", etc.

We often find that the prepositional object can be discriminated or identified rather through exclusion, that it is actually what cannot be defined as anything else.

e.g., In the sentence : "He drank his tea with lemon and with satisfaction" (one of Dickens' famous puns) the first object is clearly a prepositional object (because the question "With what ?" is answered by "With lemon/milk/sugar, etc.") while the second may be interpreted again as a prepositional object (answering a hypothetical and rather unmotivated question "With what ?") but rather corresponding to a logical question referring to the manner/way in which tea was drunk : "How ?" - therefore clearly being revealed as an adverbial modifier of manner.

1.1. Moreover, the prepositional object is closely connected with verbs which take an obligatory preposition or cannot be construed without a preposition in most of their customary contexts : to wait for, to dream of, to aim at, to boast of, etc.

1.2. Generally speaking, the prepositional object may follow both transitive and intransitive verbs. It may also follow complex verbs (verb + adverb combinations) :

e.g., I was looking forward to meeting you - I was

eagerly expecting you (Question: To what ?)

Who is going to take care of/to look after

the house in your absence ? (Questions :

Of what ? After what ?)

Can you put up with this weather ?(Question:

With what ?)

1.3. On the other hand, prepositional objects may follow adjectives and nouns, and more particularly those which through their very nature or/and origin are connected with verbs (verbal adjectives, adjectivized past participles as well as verbal nouns, etc.)

Examples of adjectives usually accompanied by prepositional objects : surprised, satisfied, content(ed), troubled, angry, concerned (most of them taking a prepositional object with the preposition at - probably because they denote especially attitudes - that is a static relation).

Examples of nouns often taking prepositional objects : surprise, reaction, response, attitude, anger, satisfaction, wrath, concern, preoccupation (followed by prepositional objects with the prepositions at, with, over - again because they denote mainly attitudes).

e.g., I was surprised/angry/revolted/amazed/
astonished/((dis)satisfied/shocked/outraged/
concerned at his behaviour.

There was no end of concern/revolt/surprise/
amazement/astonishment/anger at her abandoning
her mother.

Note 1 : Some of these adjectives and nouns may also be followed by the prepositions with or (with specific meaning) over. Yet they are usually included in lists of "words + obligatory prepositions". This should be taken in the sense that the choice of prepositions is not free, but limited to one, two or (rarely) three.

Note 2 : The variety of opinions on this matter includes the interpretation of such prepositional objects as "adjuncts/supplements" of the adjective, adjectivized participle or of the nouns, yet we consider that the relation is rather objective than otherwise, precisely because of the semantic as well as etymological connection between these parts of speech and some verbs (cf. supra).

1.4. Since it may follow a noun, an adjective, an adjectivized participle (nomina which may be used as predicatives) the prepositional object is freely connected with nominal predicates too :

e.g., His usual reaction was surprise at any new event.

Try not to be cross with her.

He did not look much/very interested in the matter.

1.5. There does not seem to be any restriction in contemporary English as to the preposition introducing a prepositional object.

For instance, even the preposition to introduces not only indirect objects, but prepositional ones as well

(e.g., "to see to a matter", "See to it that it is well done" with a formal object) which is of course a source of possible confusions with the indirect object or of difficulties of interpretation (for which reason we suggest preserving the identification of indirect objects through their connection with verbs denoting transmission or conveyance - cf. the lecture on the indirect object.).

In our interpretation, the following labels can be given to the various ways of using the verb "to belong" in contemporary English and especially in American and Australian usage :

"The book belongs to him" To whom ? - to him = prepositional object.

"The book belongs among those anthologies" [✓]Where does it belong ? - therefore adverbial modifier of place.

"This book belongs with the others" - identical interpretation - though the opposite one (taking it as a prepositional object) is not impossible :

"This book belongs on that shelf" - where does it belong ? - therefore again adverbial modifier of place = "The place of the book is on that shelf".

And lastly, an example provided by the title of a book by the Australian writer John Morrison Sailors Belong Ships should be interpreted by assimilation with the usual American sentence : "I/They, etc. belong here/there" = "My, etc. place is here/there" (Romanian translation of the title : "Locul marinarului e pe vapor").

1.6. When active sentences containing a prepositional object are turned into the passive, the prepositional object may generate a subject (cf the lecture on subjects).

e.g., They are looking into the matter (=examining, investigating)

turns into :

The matter is being looked into.

Everybody looks up to him (Vb.+adv.particle + prep. = admires him)

turns into :

He is looked up to by everybody.

Note that usually the preposition remains at the end of the sentence or clause (therefore one of the two cases when it is pronounced with its strong form).

2.0. CLASSIFICATION OF PREPOSITIONAL OBJECTS

Our classification of English objects, which do not perform the same function as indirect objects or adverbial modifiers, can be found under 2.1 - 2.5. Discussions about their discrimination are made in the introduction to the lecture on objects, in the last part of the lecture on the indirect object and at the end of this lecture (see infra.6.0)

In our opinion and in comparison with Romanian grammar, prepositional objects can be classified as follows (though a minority of them may remain outside this classification, being defined in a merely formal way, through the presence

of the preposition and the non-specific questions including the latter):

2.1. Prepositional object of agent. It denotes the person (more rarely the thing, natural element or abstract notion) performing the action. This doer or performer of the action appears as the real/logical subject in passive sentences (where it is predominantly employed in fact).

e.g., The pupils were badly treated by the nurse.

The flowers were crushed by the hail storm.

This kind of object naturally discharges the function of logical subject, being therefore closely connected with the passive voice. Anyhow, semantically, the word "agent" should be taken to mean "doer/performer of the action".

2.1.1. The specific preposition employed for this kind of object is by. On the other hand when this kind of object is employed in the active voice, the preposition through may be used with the meaning of "prin intermediul ...", "datorită ..."

e.g., I learnt of this through him/through my aunt/through a letter/through the papers. at.

(The last two examples may also be construed as adverbial modifiers of manner, answering the questions "How ?" or "In what way ?")

2.2. Prepositional object of instrument / instrumentality

It denotes the instrument/tool/utensil, the machine/apparatus, etc., the agency through which an action is performed or the material for building, etc.

e.g., He always writes with a sharp pencil

(though more frequently "He writes in pencil/
in ink etc.")

If you try to measure/cross swords/join issue
with her I'm afraid she will put you to the
edge of the sword.

The yard was partially paved with brick.

2.3. Prepositional object of means. In our conception
it is similar to the prepositional object of instrumentality
but it refers mainly to the means of transportation, therefo
employing specifically the preposition by (while for 2.2
the prepositions with and in were more frequent among many
others).

e.g., He travels by train or by ship but
practically never by plane.

He came, riding on his bicycle (though in
such a sentence we often find the verb to ride
used transitively : "He rode his bicycle home/
to school").

2.4. Prepositional object of association (Sociative
prepositional object). Its name being derived from the Latin
word "socius" (= companion, associate, fellow, etc.) this
prepositional object denotes the person (more rarely the
animal or the object, etc.) participating in an action (more
rarely a state) with the speaker or writer.

e.g., Let us then step into the coach with the
Russell family.

I went there (together) with my brother.

The lady used to walk in the park with her spaniel.

2.4.1. The specific preposition is with. Other prepositions : together with, alongside of/with.

2.5. Prepositional object of relation. It includes in fact various kinds of relations as well as attitudes, feelings, etc.

e.g., They declared (themselves) against sending a letter, but in favour of a telegram.

My reaction/response to such proposals is always the same.

I do not know what ^{his} attitude towards/to this suggestion will be.

He ^{stand} may up for/in favour of it, but he may also turn it down.

2.5.1. As one notices, the prepositions may be specific (for, in favour of, against) or habitual for attitudes (at, to, towards) but other prepositions are also used (over, about, with, etc.)

2.5.2. The rest of the prepositional objects are rather hard to classify, as they denote various more subtle relations : discrimination, disjunction, participation, opposition, exception, cumulation, etc.

Note : Certain grammarians feel inclined to classify some of these (particularly the last two) among adverbial modifiers - i.e. relations.

3.0. MEANS OF EXPRESSING THE PREPOSITIONAL OBJECT

Being a nominal part of the sentence, a prepositional object can be expressed practically by any of the nomina preceded by a preposition, but mainly by a preposition + one of the following elements :

3.1. A noun (of any kind, including a proper name)

e.g., The woman thought of the life she was tossed into. (= into which she was tossed - relative attributive clause introduced by a preposition + relative pronoun).

3.2. A pronoun of any kind

e.g., The boys were fighting with each other.

3.3. A gerundial phrase

e.g., She was engaged in watching for the messenger.
He insisted on doing it himself.

3.4. An infinitival phrase

e.g., He seems often inclined to agree with everybody.

3.5. A prepositional object clause (of rather rare occurrence, like indirect object clauses)

e.g., I thought of what I was to do that afternoon.
I am very much concerned over/by what has happened.

4.0. THE PLACE OF THE PREPOSITIONAL OBJECT

4.1. When both the direct object and the prepositional object are present, the former continues to follow the predicate immediately.

e.g., He asked a question of me instead of
(asking) her.

He informed her of his decision.

4.2. When all three kinds of objects are present in the sentence, they follow in the sequence : direct object (with or without attributes) - place III, indirect object (if followed by attributes) - place IV, (while as a short indirect object it takes the place of the direct object), prepositional object (with or without attributes) - place V.

e.g., My mother sent that wonderful parcel to my
sister through a common friend.

(also : Mother sent my sister that beautiful
parcel through the post/by post.)

4.3. In fact, the prepositional object normally takes place V in the sentence, irrespective of the reciprocal position of the direct and indirect object (governed by the rules specified in the respective lectures and in that on word order).

4.4. The prepositional object may be placed at the beginning of a sentence, acquiring special prominence, when emphasis is intended :

e.g., With fire and sword the country round
They wasted far and wide (Southey)

4.5. If the adverbial modifier is much more closely connected with the predicate (or another verb), the prepositional object may be moved after the adverbial modifier (place VI).

e.g., You are walking too fast for me.

The same happens when adverbial modifiers of place are so closely bound up with the verb that they form syntagms :
to go to school/to church/to the cinema/to the theatre/
to go to one's place/to go home, etc.

e.g., I went/walked/drove to the cinema/
to school, etc. with my cousin.

"With whom do you usually go to school ?"

"I usually go to school with John."

Yet, this shift of places is not obligatory :

e.g., He looked at me closely (more usual than :
He looked closely at me).

5.1. There is a tendency nowadays to replace prepositional objects following intransitive verbs by constructions with a transitive verb :

e.g., He was drumming with his fingers on the
table.

is replaced currently by

He was drumming his fingers on the table.

The same happens in "He was knocking at the door with his stick" - turning into "He was knocking his stick against the door".

5.2. Similarly, prepositional objects tend to turn into direct objects (of an instrumental nature) in such constructions :

e.g., He wiped his face with a towel.

is often formulated as :

He wiped a towel all over his face (= "și-a sters bine fața").

6.o. The difficult distinctions concern the differentiations of prepositional objects from adverbial modifiers, to a certain extent from indirect objects and occasionally (less difficult) from attributes.

^{Great was}
e.g., my surprise at seeing him; I was frightened at seeing him (including prepositional objects, though in the first example some people may take the phrase at seeing him for an attribute).

He acts by the book (prepositional object but in fact already transformed into an adverbial modifier of manner = "riguros, după carte").

He will come by two o'clock (naturally an adverbial modifier of time).

"Where is the table ?" "I moved it against the wall" (naturally adverbial modifier of place) but :

"Don't sit on the chair against the wall!"

most probably an attribute answering
the question "Which chair ?" - "The one
which is (placed) against the wall".

The distinction is easier in the following three
examples including the same phrase :

e.g., I prefer to dance at the club (adverbial
modifier of place).

The dance at the club was successful.

(attribute)

We shall dance at a club, not at a restaurant.

(most probably prepositional objects set in
contrast or opposition).

X. THE ADVERBIAL MODIFIERS

o.1. If we regard grammar as involving three planes of discussion (e.g. considering that a noun becomes the subject or part of the subject in the syntax of the simple sentence, and is apt to be extended into a subject clause as part of a complex sentence) we may discern the following three planes of discussion in connection with the adverbial function - i.e. that of showing the circumstances in which an action takes place :

I. In morphology the words discharging this "circumstantial function" are usually adverbs.

II. In the syntax of the simple sentence, the function of the adverbs or of adverbial phrases (usually nouns preceded by prepositions) is called "adverbial modifier" (of time, place, etc.)

III. In the syntax of the complex sentence (involving subordination), the same "circumstantial" function is discharged by groups of words including a predicative verb, that is by adverbial clauses.

o.2. As our discussion at the moment regards the syntax of the simple sentence, we are concerned for the time being in the second plane of this scale, namely in that of adverbial modifiers including either an adverb pure and simple or an adverbial phrase.

1.o. An adverbial modifier is a secondary part of the

sentence which modifies or renders more precise a verb (either predicative or not), an adjective or another adverb.

1.1. Its usual function is connected with the main verb in the sentence, that is with the predicate, the other cases being less frequent. Nevertheless, a certain category of adverbial modifiers - viz. adverbial modifiers of degree (or quantity, measure, intensity, etc.) are frequently used in front of adjectives or of adverbs of manner, in order to intensify their effect (cf. 2.3.1.2. Note also that such adverbs as enough are placed after the adjectives or adverbs they intensify).

1.2. In terms of structure, an adverbial modifier is either an adverb or an adverbial phrase ("locuțiune circumstanțială").

1.3. Some grammarians make a distinction between :

A. modifiers of an adverbial nature - that is elements which determine a more or less essential change in the meaning of the predicate or of another verb in the sentence (e.g., the adverbial modifiers of manner, of attending circumstances).

B. determinative adverbials - whose function is to render the verb more precise/definite, e.g., the adjectivized adverbial phrase (expressing a quality in a certain degree) or the adverbial modifiers of degree, intensity, etc. (used for forming the comparative and superlative - both relative and absolute - of adjectives as well as of adverbs of manner - cf. 2.3.1.2).

2.0. The Classification of Adverbial Modifiers

In keeping with the function which they discharge in the sentence, adverbial modifiers can be classified either in a broader categorization or in a narrower one (detailing all their meanings or shades of meaning). A classification which, without ignoring semantic values, does not go into exaggerated details would be the following :

2.1. Adverbial Modifiers of Time, subdivided as follows, for reasons connected both with the use of tenses and with the rule of word order :

2.1.1. Adverbial Modifiers of Definite Time - e.g., yesterday, tomorrow, last week, last year - (in fact, the whole series of adverbial phrases beginning with the word last) three days ago (in fact the whole series of adverbial ending in the word ago), three days before - (again the whole series ending in before).

2.1.1.1. They are connected mainly with certain tenses :

- (a) the past tense/indefinite or preterite, used extensively in English narratives in all persons (though less frequently in dialogues);
- (b) the past perfect (naturally offering more frequent occasions for adverbial phrases ending in before) ;
- (c) the future indefinite (normally being limited in its choice of adverbial modifiers to the words tomorrow, the day after tomorrow and to days of the week, dates, etc. - but not usually being employed with the adverbial phrases beginning with next which are closely connected with the

various means of expressing the near future.

2.1.1.2. Adverbial modifiers of definite time normally have the last place in the sentence (place VIII in case all other parts of the sentence are present) or the optional place 0 - with a slight degree of emphasis which is usually acquired in this way.

Note : For all references to word-order, see also table in A.Bantaş ER/RE Dictionary (Dicţionar de buzunar Englez-Român şi Român-Englez, Ed.Stiinţifică, 1968, 1974)

2.1.2. Adverbial Modifiers of Indefinite Time and Frequency which in fact may be subdivided for mere semantic reasons (without any implications in the use of tenses or the order of words into :

2.1.2.1. (A.) adverbial modifiers of indefinite time (in this case the word indefinite meaning non-specified, imprecise, vague or extending over a longer period) e.g., just, recently, lately, of late, in recent times, in the last time (not very frequent), in the last two etc. days, in the last week(s) or so, etc. As one easily notices, they may be said to be in fact adverbial modifiers of recent time, as they show the (not very long) anteriority of the action in relation to the moment of speaking/writing.

2.1.2.2. (B.) adverbial modifiers of frequency - expressing the habitual/customary or repeated/iterated nature of the action (therefore being bound up with the frequentative/iterative aspect) although many grammarians do not distinguish them from the adverbs of indefinite/recent

time (since their syntactical behaviour does not differ from that category).- e.g., usually, normally, frequently, habitually, customarily, as usual, ordinarily, currently (now used in Am.E. with the meaning of "at the moment"), often, seldom, rarely, ever, never, sometimes, as often as not, more often than not, as a rule, etc.

2.1.2.3. Adverbial modifiers of both indefinite time and frequency are normally connected with the present perfect, one of the latter's functions being to indicate an action whose moment of performance is either unspecified/vaguely specified or unimportant/irrelevant.

Note : In contemporary usage, the adverb recently is often employed with the past tense, as part of the slightly laxer application of the rules for the use of tenses in colloquial English, also involving a perceptible diminution in the utilization of the present perfect (and possibly also because it is perceived by some speakers as a bit more definite than similar adverbs - like the Romanian adverb "deunăzi"). The same applies, though to a smaller extent, to the adverb lately.

2.1.2.4. Adverbial modifiers of indefinite time as well as those of frequency, may take two places in the sentence, according to whether they are short (expressed in most cases by one adverb or, more rarely by a short preposition and a short noun or adjective) or long (a longer adverbial phrase).

(A.) Short adverbial modifiers of indefinite time or frequency are usually placed with the predicate - that is

(a) if the predicate is made up of one verb alone, the adverbial precedes the latter; (b) if the predicate includes an anomalous finite (an auxiliary or modal verb), the auxiliary is placed between the latter and the notional/main verb; (c) if the predicate includes several auxiliaries or modals, the adverbial is placed immediately after the first of them.

e.g., (a) He often comes here of evenings.

but

(b) He has often read his poems to us,

or

(c) I should/could/might/would often have gone to see him, if I had not as a rule been working seven days a week.

(b) She has less often gone to the hairdresser's in recent months, etc.

(B.) Long adverbial modifiers of indefinite time or frequency, normally take place VIII in the sentence (like those of definite time when all other parts of the sentence are present) but they may also take place O (with a slight degree of emphasis or for the sake of contrast).

e.g., Of late, he has seemed to me rather aggrieved.

As a rule, I never have coffee late at night.

Exceptionally, they are also found inside the predicate (cf. last two examples under A).

2.2. Adverbial modifiers of place and direction

They are similar to the Romanian "complemente circumstantiale de loc", assuming a variety of forms.

2.2.1. They usually take place VII in the sentence, if the other parts of the sentence are present. When they are

used in front position (place 0 - rather infrequent for them) they acquire not so much prominence or emphasis as a sense of contrast - sometimes unwelcome or unseasonable.

e.g., There is a good theatre in Sibiu (normal)

In Sibiu, there is a good theatre (contrast with other cities, sounding rude in case one speaks to an inhabitant of Timișoara etc.)

Therefore, the undue prominence of the adverbial modifier of place should be avoided when it is not our intention to emphasize contrast.

2.3. Adverbial modifiers of manner, roughly correspond to the Romanian "complemente circumstanțiale de mod", but certain semantic considerations and especially particular rigours of the rules of word order, may cause grammarians to distinguish subcategories among them or even to create separate categories :

- A. adverbial modifiers of manner proper
- B. adverbial modifiers of attending/attendant circumstances
- C. adverbial modifiers of comparison
- D. adverbial modifiers of comparison and concession/comparative-concessive adverbials
- E. adverbial modifiers of concession proper

If we adopt this view, we discriminate between the following types of "complemente circumstanțiale de mod" :

2.3.1. adverbial modifiers of manner proper, more exactly corresponding to the Romanian notion of "mod". In

fact, however, not only because of their function but also because of their place in the sentence, they ought to be subdivided further :

2.3.1.1. (a) adverbial modifiers (adverbs or adverbial phrases) denoting the manner in which the action is performed. Because the discrimination is occasionally difficult when adverbial modifiers of attending circumstances or of another type are involved, we should like to state that in our opinion the category under discussion are characteristically subject-centred, that is they refer to the manner in which the subject performs the action, while adverbial modifiers of attending circumstances are more objective referring to conditions or circumstances external to/outside/beyond the performer of the action (and most probably independent of his will).

These adverbial modifiers obey the same rules for the order of words - i.e. when short they are placed inside the predicate (like those of indefinite time - cf. 2.1.2.4) while the long ones take place VI in the sentence or the optional place O (cf. again 2.1.2.4).

2.3.1.2. (b) adverbial modifiers of degree (usually one word) - in fact adverbs which show the degree, extent, measure, intensity, etc. of an adjective, or of another adverb or adverbial modifier (usually of manner).

e.g., He is very clever.

He speaks very beautiful English.

She speaks English very beautiful^{ly}/She very

beautifully speaks English.

It was awfully disappointing.

His behaviour was most surprising.

She writes much faster than I/me/than I do/
than I can write.

She talks awfully loud.

He was frightfully nice to his mother.

I was dreadfully disappointed in him.

Note 1 : As it can easily be seen, the role of some of these adverbs of degree is mainly morphological, that is they contribute to forming a relative or an absolute superlative for the respective adjectives or adverbs which they accompany. (A case in point is also the adverb mainly in this very sentence).

Note 2 : Attention should be called to the distinction which is made by English speaking people in pronunciation and intonation between these adverbs of degree (pronounced with their short form and not entitled to sentence-stress, because of their auxiliary or ancillary role) and adverbs of manner proper, with the same written form (employed only in their strong form and entitled to sentence-stress because they discharge a fully significant semantic and grammatical role in relation to the predicate or another verb in the sentence) :

e.g., (A) I'm awfully ['ɔ:flɪ] 'tired (adverb of degree intensifying the value of the adjective which serves as a predicative and

therefore gives meaning to the nominal predicate).

- (B) He has behaved 'awfully ['ɔ:fuli] to us all (a normal adverbial modifier of manner expressed through an adverb of manner - therefore a semantically significant word, moreover double stressed occasionally, under the impact of strong emotion).

Further examples :

- (A) She was frightfully kind to me (as one can easily notice, a mere intensifier, devoid of semantic value - in fact meaning the opposite of its face value, like Romanian adverbs such as "groaznic de", "îngrozitor de", "teribil de") - its pronunciation is reduced to its weak form.
- (B) I think she sang (downright) frightfully last night. (Therefore an adverb of manner - perhaps in its turn intensified by various means -, semantically meaningful and therefore given sentence stress, naturally entailing the strong form ['fraitfuli] - never with the reduced form [ə] vowel no.12).

2.3.1.2.1. Adverbial modifiers of degree may also denote approximation, size, depth, length, etc. (that is whatever refers to measurements or quantities - sometimes difficult to distinguish from intensity or extent). Besides the above-mentioned adverbs, we should also list the adverbs quite (nowadays no longer involving satisfaction - perhaps even on the contrary - and therefore in no case being used for the

superlative), nearly (referring especially to figures or to something that is considered satisfactory, even though incomplete), almost (usually referring to whole units or elements, or showing dissatisfaction at incompleteness) as well as some adverbial phrases : to a certain extent, in a certain measure/degree (the phrase "to a degree" means "extremely, wonderfully" in colloquial speech), quite a lot, a great/good deal, pretty well, well nigh, etc.

2.4. Adverbial modifiers of attending/attendant circumstances which do not seem to have a specific correspondent in Romanian grammar (being treated just as one case or type of "complemente circumstanțiale de mod") since they do not offer any difficulty or peculiarity of usage, of grammatical treatment, etc.

In our opinion, adverbial modifiers of attendant/attending circumstances (= "împrejurări însoțitoare/auxiliare/secundare") ^{are} semantically discrete from adverbial modifiers of manner, besides the fact that they take different places in the sentence. Indeed, while an adverbial modifier of manner refers to the way in which the subject performs the action (therefore being more subject-centred - cf. 2.3.1), an adverbial modifier of attending circumstances refers to the condition beyond/outside the subject, in which the action is performed :

e.g., He went out hurriedly/in a hurry/angrily/
without his hat/forgetting to take his umbrella/
papers/bag etc. (adverbial modifiers of manner

proper, referring to the manner in which the subject - intentionally or unintentionally - performs the action).

but

He went out in the (pouring) rain/in the dark/
in the failing light etc. (adverbial modifiers of attending circumstances as they refer to external conditions/circumstances, not connected - at least apparently - with the subject as an agent/door/performer of the action.

2.4.1. The distinction is not particularly important, yet it has much more relevance in English than in other languages, for reasons connected with the much more fixed/set order of words in the former language :

While adverbial modifiers of manner take the foremost place among the other adverbial modifiers, if some of the latter are present (moreover being placed with or inside the predicate when short), the adverbial modifier of attending circumstances takes the last place in the sentence (even after place VIII in a hypothetical sentence which would include adverbial modifiers of manner, place, definite time).

On the other hand, the adverbial modifier of attending/ attendant circumstances can take place 0 in the sentence (in front of the subject), with a slight degree of emphasis, but not necessarily contrast (therefore more frequently than the adverbial modifier of place, for instance).

Thus, the adverbial modifier of manner and that of attending circumstances are not interchangeable in point of

word order (mainly because that of manner is much more closely bound up with the predicate or another verb in the sentence).

e.g., He rashly/foolishly/madly/crazily/inadvertently/
recklessly crossed the street in front of the
approaching/on-coming car (the adverbial of
attending circumstances can only take the last
place in the sentence, while if greater emphasis
is desired for the adverb of manner, the latter
may take place 0 as well).

2.5. Adverbial modifiers of comparison - often employed
as similes (= literary comparisons) and therefore distinct
from adverbials of manner proper in most cases, through their
comparative function:

e.g., He was as tremulous as a quivering leaf.

He behaves like a father to her (to be dis-
tinguished from "as a father" = "in his capacity/
position of her father" - therefore adverbial
modifier of manner proper).

You are hoarser than yesterday.

NOTE: Grammarians who do not discriminate adverbial
modifiers of comparison as a distinct category would find
much support for their view in the first example above, in
which the adverbial could be replaced by an adverb of manner
such as: terribly, frightfully, etc.

2.6. Adverbial modifiers of comparison and concession / comparative/concessive adverbial modifiers seem to arise out of the contraction of adverbial clauses of comparison and concession (comparative-concessive clauses) through the ellipsis/omission of the verb :

e.g., He spoke as though/as if disgusted/in disgust
(possibly arising out of "He spoke as though/
as if he had been/he were disgusted").

2.7. Adverbial modifiers of concession proper (the last of the possible subcategories of adverbial modifiers of manner) - the equivalent of adverbial clauses of concession (similar to Romanian ones) but formed without a predicative verb. They are introduced by the prepositions despite and in spite of :

e.g., Despite his behaviour/in spite of his mistakes,
etc. I cannot help admiring him.

Note : Like the adverbial modifiers of comparison and concession, (cf.2.6) the category under review may also arise out of the contraction of concessive adverbial clauses, through ellipsis of the predicate or another verb :

e.g., Though (he was) tired, he could not sleep.

(As one can easily notice, it is not unreasonable to consider that the adverbial function is discharged by an elliptical adverbial clause of concession, especially ^{since} the comma is felt as necessary by the English.)

2.8. Adverbial modifiers of purpose, representing the reflection of the adverbial clause of purpose (final clause) on the plane of the syntax of the simple sentence. Usually, such adverbial modifiers are introduced by in order to (interpreted by some grammarians as a conjunction, therefore again introducing a final clause, of a special kind) as often as not reduced to the mere particle to, since it is inevitably followed by an infinitive :

e.g., I went there to see my mother.

This adverbial modifier is therefore the equivalent of a final clause (with the analytical subjunctive) which is not necessary when its subject is identical with that of the main clause.

e.g., I went to his house first thing in the morning so that I may ("might" would show smaller probability) find him at home/for fear that I should miss him/lest I should miss him.

can all be reduced to

I went to his house early (in order) to find him at home (because the purpose-part of the utterance refers to the action of the same subject).

On the other hand, if the two subjects differ, only one form with the subjunctive is possible:

e.g., I rang him up personally, lest he should forget to call me (impossible to change into an infinitival phrase).

2.9. Adverbial modifiers of condition (a reflection of conditional clauses - not very frequent, except in a few more or less set phrases : if necessary, with perseverance, with patience, etc. as well as in phrases beginning with "given ..." which always suggest contraction of an adverbial clause to an absolute construction :

e.g., If we have/prove enough patience/perseverance
etc., the matter can be solved.

can turn into :

Given patience/perseverance etc., the matter
can be solved.

2.10. Adverbial modifiers of cause/reason (again a contraction of a similar adverbial clause) expresses the motivation of an action, usually placed in the first part of the sentence :

e.g., Because of the weather, considering the
circumstances, for having done this, etc.

Note : Given this utilization of the preposition for, in front of a gerundial construction, it is better to avoid it in order to denote purpose. On the other hand, it is compulsory to remember that the phrase in view of has only the causative meaning "Given these circumstances, under the circumstances, in the above/present conditions" and never that of purpose (expressed by "in order to + infinitive", "in order that + analytical subjunctive", "with a view to + noun or gerundial phrase", e.g. in : "With a view to organizing our coming holidays/to arranging a tour of

mountain resorts next winter/,"etc.

2.11. Adverbial modifiers of result/consequence

(reflecting the respective adverbial clauses, usually called in Romanian "propoziții consecutive") shows the consequence/effect/result, therefore being the opposite of the previous type of adverbial :

e.g., It's too much for me to do it at once.

Although formulated in a different way, it expresses the same idea as a sentence like : I cannot do it at once because it is too much (for me).

3.0. MEANS OF EXPRESSING THE ADVERBIAL MODIFIERS

In English, adverbial modifiers can be expressed by a wide range of means, such as :

3.1. By an adverb of various kinds : He usually comes here Sundays.

3.2. By a noun (sometimes accompanied by other words), showing :

3.2.1. space :

e.g., He travels miles (on end).

He lives miles away.

3.2.2. time :

e.g., He worked months (on end) at it.

He waited years and years.

3.2.3. place : (the preposition being frequently omitted)

e.g., They live Piccadilly Circus.

3.2.4. size :

e.g., He is only five feet (three inches) tall.

3.2.5. price :

e.g., It costs a pound (note that it answers the question "How much ?").

3.2.6. manner :

e.g., They rose arms in hand(s).

3.2.7. attending circumstances :

e.g., They travelled far, the weather rather charming.

(a nominative absolute construction through the omission of the word being in an absolute participle construction - also called "nominative + indefinite participle").

3.3. a prepositional phrase (Romanian "locuțiune circumstanțială") that is a group of words including (among other things) a noun preceded by a preposition.

e.g., He comes here in the afternoon/of evenings/
(poetically) of an evening.

He did work, with a vengeance (= "pe rupte,
pe brînci, și încă cum", cf. also "în dușmănie")

3.4. A group of words made up of a subordinating conjunction + a noun/a pronoun/adjective/infinitive/participle.

e.g., If indispensable, I shall do it immediately.
(cf. 2.9)

While writing, various novel ideas occurred to him.
When with them, he never thinks of his sufferings,
(through ellipsis from : "When/whenever he is
with them").

As usual, he speaks in a low voice (Possibly
a contraction from "As is usual with/for him")

Note : * "as usually" is incorrect ; usually is an adverb
of frequency to be used alone ; conjunctions do not precede
adverbs of manner. Therefore also in general, not * "in generally"

3.5. A participle or participial phrase. Usually this
refers :

a) to the perfect participle

e.g., Having finished, he went home.

b) to participial phrases

Having done this, this (being) done, when
interviewed, etc.

e.g., This done, we took our leave.

3.6. Absolute constructions - mainly the absolute +
nominative :

e.g., (His) hands in his pockets, he went out.

He came to me hat in hand.

3.7. A prepositional gerundial phrase :

e.g., On taking him home, he found the boy was
hungry.

She had troubles at the office for having
quarrelled with her boss.

3.8. An infinitive or an infinitival phrase :

e.g., I bought the book to read it (final - cf.2.8)

I went home to eat (idem)

I bought it for you to read (usually called

"for phrase + infinitive" or "the for-to infinitive."

4.0. As regards the normal word-order in declarative sentences, one more observation is necessary. The most frequent combination of adverbial modifiers being Manner, Place, Time, they occur precisely in this (alphabetical) order

XI. THE ATTRIBUTE

o.1. English attributes follow the lines of attributes in most languages in many respects. On the other hand, as against Romanian attributes they differ mainly through the great abundance and frequency of attributes expressed by the mere simple juxtaposition noun + noun, in which the first element discharges an attributive role towards the second noun whether it is written separately, hyphenated or solid-spelt. Such combinations are also frequent in German (especially solid-spelt) while in Romanian the attributive noun is hardly ever found in ante position; the increasing though not very numerous noun + noun combinations (e.g., "casă vagon", "mobilă tip", "locuință-tip", "bloc turn", "grisă farin" etc.) preserve the noun discharging a secondary, attributive role, in post position.

o.2. The above-mentioned variation in spelling (the separation or juncture between the attribute and the main noun) is not always relevant and anyhow usage has not yet said its final word in this matter. Nor have dictionaries reached a consensus in this respect, fluctuations being ample and rather inconsistent both in texts of various natures and in reference works of all kinds.

Nevertheless, as soon as we notice a greater frequency of a solid-spelt noun + noun combination, we should assimilate

it, for this seems to be the main tendency in contemporary British usage (in spite of the divergencies and in spite of the greater laxity perceptible in American usage).

1.0. In terms of general logic, including that of English grammar, the attribute may be defined as the secondary part of a sentence which determines or modifies the subject of the sentence or any other noun or noun equivalent, irrespective of the syntactical role it discharges.

Therefore, an attribute may modify (the semantic value of) or determine/lend precision to/particularize the subject, the predicative, the direct, indirect or prepositional object as well as a noun which is part of a phrase used as an adverbial modifier, etc.

To put it differently, any nominal part of the sentence (any or the nomina in morphology) may have its attribute (though personal pronouns for instance offer some constraints - their attributes being limited to appositions - see below).

1.1. As attributes differ widely in their nature, - denoting qualities, age, material, colour, nationality, etc., as well as determinative details such as : time, place, appurtenance, etc. - the questions answered by attributes are also numerous and diverse : what ?, what kind of ?, whose ?, which ?, how much ?, how many ?, belonging to whom ?, etc.

1.2. Because of the variety of means for expressing the attribute, in English the discrimination is sometimes difficult or fairly relative between attributes and other parts of the sentence, especially the prepositional object

(cf. the discussion in the respective lecture) and some adverbial modifiers. The guiding elements should be the specific questions answered by the respective parts of the sentence and the theoretical conclusion brought about by a close observation of and meditation upon the main or secondary parts of the sentence, to which the element under review refers. (If it is more closely connected with the action, state or description present in the sentence, it must be part of the predicate group - therefore probably an adverbial modifier ; if it is linked to the subject - or, on the other hand, to another noun in the sentence - it should be an attribute). An additional difficulty is provided by the utilization of such adverbial modifiers of place as here and there or of definite time such as now, then, today, etc. after a noun (especially those semantically and/or etymologically connected with verbs). In Romanian grammar too, this situation has been solved by distinguishing the category or "adverbial attributes", which we too may adopt.

2.o. Specific ways of expressing the attribute

Although theoretically in English any part of speech may discharge the function of an attribute (which applies to other parts of the sentence as well, but with a vengeance to attributes) the more specific ways of expression of this part of the sentence are the following (listed more or less in the order of their frequency) :

2.1. The typical attribute in any language is the adjective, which holds good for English too. Adjectives are of several kinds :

2.1.1. An attribute may be expressed especially by a modifying adjective of the sub-type "qualificative/qualifying" - e.g. beautiful, kind, nice, tall, etc.

2.1.2. Relative adjectives (referring to material, colour, nature, type, size, etc.) also hold an important part among attributes - e.g., a stone wall, a silk dress, golden hair, brown eyes, etc.

2.1.3. Adjectives derived from the indefinite participles (e.g. interesting, amusing, annoying, etc.) are also called verbal adjectives, but when they are fully adjectivized their behaviour is identical with that of qualificative adjectives :

e.g., The interesting fact is that the book is most amusing.

Note : Among attributes expressed by a word ending in -ing, the distinction is usually made between "verbal adjectives" (e.g., singing bird = a bird which sings) and "verbal nouns" (e.g., she takes singing lessons = lessons in singing = "lecții de canto/cînt") with various distinctions, including the fact that most of the verbal adjectives may have also degrees of comparison, which is impossible for attributes expressed by a noun of any nature whatever (cf. also the examples with the word French below).

2.1.4 Adjectives derived from a past participle (e.g., for all parties concerned = "pentru toate părțile/persoanele

interesate/implicate") seem to originate in an abbreviated attributive clause :

e.g., The book read by him.

seems to derive from

The book which was read by him.

Unlike most of the other attributes, this category takes mainly post-position, especially when the derivation from a clause is clearer, that is when the adjectivization of the participle does not appear to English ears or minds as being complete. Sometimes (as in the case of the adjective concerned), two adjectives may appear out of the same participle : a qualitative/modifying one with the full functions and characteristics of any similar adjective, and a determining one (as in the above example of contraction of a clause) which remains in post-position alone.

2.1.5. Possessive adjectives are naturally frequent among determining attributes :

e.g., My father is younger than his cousin.

2.1.6. A demonstrative adjective is frequently used with English nouns :

e.g., That book is more interesting than this one.

Note : Besides the normal list of four demonstrative adjectives, highly colloquial or substandard English records the improper use of the pronoun them instead of these or those, especially with a slightly derogatory connotation :

e.g., I don't much like them flowers; they smell too sweet.

2.1.7. Indefinite adjectives of various kinds (any, either, neither, many, few, several, some, etc.) are often used as attributes.

e.g., Will you have some more sugar in your tea ?

There are many trees on either side of the street.

2.1.8. Interrogative adjectives (what, which, whose) and their combinations with nouns (what kind of etc.) are also used as attributes :

e.g., What book are you reading ?

Which book do you prefer ?

Whose umbrella did I take by mistake ?

What kind of flowers do you prefer ?

2.2. Numerals of various kinds may be used as attributes

2.2.1. Specifically they are ordinal numerals :

e.g., From the very first moment I noticed he was just a baby.

Note 1: As is easily noticed, the numeral may be determined in its turn.

Note 2: The function of the ordinal numeral is sometimes discharged by a cardinal numeral, especially when brevity is an important factor, for instance in titles :

e.g., Chapter 4/IV/Four is much shorter than Chapter Five, etc.

2.2.2. Cardinal numerals taken in themselves, with their specific function, often serve as attributes :

e.g., He can't write or type more than 30 words a

minute, while in shorthand he can take down as many as 120 words a minute.

2.3. Nouns of various kinds can serve as attributes in the following situations :

2.3.1. In the genitive either expressed/explicit- (a.) synthetic or (b.) analytic- or (c.) implicit/unmarked :

2.3.1.1. Common nouns :

e.g., (a.) The Wife's Complaint.

(a.) The Pilgrim's Progress.

(b.) The edge of the table is rugged.

(c.) The student hostel is close by.

(c.) The United Nations Organization (implicit genitive in the plural)

2.3.1.2. Proper names :

e.g., Peter's brothers are my best friends.

St. Patrick's Cathedral.

John's cousin's dog is wonderful (double genitive - the first for a proper name)

Uncle Tom's Cabin.

2.3.2. In the nominative (by mere juxtaposition, to be distinguished, however, from the implicit genitive - cf. 2.3.1).

e.g., "Evening Tales" is a book by Sadoveanu.

This is a solid gold watch.

The Five-Year Plan is successfully being carried out.

Note : Usually such "numeral + noun" attributive phrases

do not employ the plural mark for the noun, that is they apply the same form as the implicit genitives (cf.2.3.1).

Further examples :

She takes French lessons three times a week. (In this case French is a noun, standing for the French language : "ia lecții de franceză, germană, etc" to be distinguished from the adjective used attributively in French wines/films/novels, etc.

2.3.3. Nouns preceded by prepositions (therefore normally considered to be in the Accusative/Object case, - while in the case of the preposition of grammarians usually consider it is the genitive again).

e.g., A report on the development of the village was tabled at the meeting. (Alternative order of words : A report was tabled at the meeting on the development of the village - the predicate being brought closer to the subject and the attributes being relegated to their subordinate place).

The prospects for the father were still very good.

He is a man of substance (= "un om cu stare").

Give me a glass of water etc.

2.4. A pronoun preceded by a preposition can serve as an attribute :

e.g., A friend of mine said he would buy some of them.

2.5. An infinitive and especially an infinitival phrase can serve as attributes :

e.g., Theirs is a friendly desire to help (us in our work, etc.)

2.6. A gerundial phrase can also discharge an attributive role :

e.g., The thought came to him of buying a bicycle for Martin.

2.7. Adverbs may be used attributively, even more frequently in English than in Romanian. Their function is usually determinative (all the more so as they are in most cases adverbs of place or of definite time) but sometimes modifying implications may be present (for instance now = present, current).

e.g., The furniture downstairs is very agreeable.

The conditions here are even better than they used to be.

The situation now is as stated below.

The now Government of the country is influenced by the agreements signed by the then President.

We met at the junction but he was taking the up train (= "trenul de Londra"), while I was waiting for the down train (= "trenul care merge în provincie").

Note : In the last example, through conversion, the adverbs become adjectives, sometimes appended to the noun by hyphenation, though not fully adjectivized in other respects

(cf. also 2.8).

2.8. By any word or group of words used in order to modify or determine the subject of another noun in the sentence.

e.g., She is a regular stay-at-home wife (the hyphenation is current).

Word for word translations should be avoided (the hyphenation is unusual).

If-clauses should be distinguished from whether-clauses (hyphenation necessary).

Wh-questions are scientifically called special or particular questions, while yes/no questions (also called yes or no questions)

. bear the scientific name of general questions.

2.9. Naturally, attributes may be stressed by attributive clauses, introduced by various elements, not only relative pronouns : which, that, who, whom, whose, when, where, why, how, etc.

e.g., The day when it rained, we stayed at home.

The day will come when you will regret it !

The place where we gave the party was very nice.

My uncle who lives at Buzău is older than my uncle who lives in Craiova.

3.0. A particular type of attribute in various languages in the Apposition.

3.1. Even in English, where nouns can be used attributively by mere juxtaposition to another noun, the

apposition is distinguished as an element which renders the main noun more precise or definite or serves for identification, while standing in the same nominative case as the latter.

3.2. Appositions are subdivided in terms of their structure and the punctuation they require into simple and loose, irrespective of their function.

3.3. The simple/^{close}apposition is closely connected with the respective noun, being used without commas, usually in the form of just one noun in order to determine or explain or define names of persons, titles, professions, geographical names, etc. :

e.g., Doctor Johnson was a prominent figure of English letters.

Queen Elizabeth was the ruler of Shakespeare's England.

The American writer Theodore Dreiser is best known through his novel "An American Tragedy".

The river Thames is not very long but is navigable for the most part thanks to its broad estuary and to the tide.

3.3.1. Opinions differ as to the main/head noun in such cases. In our conception the name of the profession, the specification of the kind of water course etc. in the above examples, is rather the subordinate, explanatory element used to identify or clarify the name used as a subject etc. On the other hand it is true that in certain cases the situation may

be reversed, especially by subjective or emphatic stress, used for contrast:

e.g., Doctor Johnson, not doctor Smith, was called.

(involving contrast of person), while

Doctor Johnson, not colonel Johnson, rang me up.

(involving contrast of profession and therefore

these nouns seem to be the main/head element -

- thanks to emphasis - and not the name).

3.4. The loose apposition (in Romanian "apozitie dezvoltată") is separated by commas, even if it does not include more than one word, the reason being that it is considered parenthetical, less important or essential than the close/simple apposition.

e.g., Mrs. Crawley, the rector's wife, was a smart little body, who wrote the worthy divine's sermons. (Thackeray, Vanity Fair)

Mr. Smith, the/our President, delivered a speech.

NOTE 1: Loose appositions may follow and determine also a whole clause:

e.g., George's grand parents asked him to spend his holidays with them in the country, which he readily accepted. (Only the relative pronoun which can be employed in such cases).

NOTE 2: When the apposition is correlative, coreferential or resumed, it is usually preceded by the indefinite article, whether it follows a noun or a clause:

e.g., Engineer Popescu, an engineer who graduated from Brasov, has now assumed the management of the Craiova works.

They asked me to have supper with them, an invitation which I gladly jumped at.

XII. HOMOGENEOUS AND INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS IN THE SENTENCE / CLAUSE

1.0. HOMOGENEOUS PARTS OF THE SENTENCE. A sentence may include several elements of the same kind (e.g. subjects, attributes, etc.) which are connected by co-ordination (both by means of co-ordinating conjunctions - copulative or otherwise - and asyndetically, that is by juxtaposition, with or without commas - cf. coordination in Compound sentences).

These elements which discharge the same role in the sentence are called either "homogeneous parts of the sentence/ clause" or coordinated subjects, attributes, direct objects, prepositional objects, etc.

e.g., He and his brother are my best friends
(coordinated subjects).

He wrote novels, short stories (and) poems.
(coordinated direct objects)

He is very fond of swimming, dancing (and)
skiing. (coordinated prepositional objects)

I adore to sing and to play the piano/I adore
singing and playing the piano. (coordinated
direct objects).

He usually comes here on Thursdays and
Saturdays. (coordinated adverbial modifiers of
definite time)

The book is to be found in our library, in the

other libraries of the university, in school libraries and (practically) everywhere in the country. (coordinated adverbial modifiers of place).

1.1. Several words discharging the same syntactical function and holding the same relations as to the other parts of the sentence, while appearing in identical or very similar syntagms are called homogeneous parts of the sentence.

In order to be identified as such, they must answer identical or very similar questions, either specific (where ? when ? who ? etc.) or non-specific (by whom ? with what ? under what circumstances/conditions ?)

1.1.1. If two or several parts of the sentence seem to fill the same place and to discharge the same roles in the sentence, but it is impossible to apply the same question to them, they are not homogeneous, in spite of their appearance. Besides the points on the discrimination of parts of the sentence in the lectures on the prepositional object, the adverbial modifiers, the attribute, etc. here are hypothetical examples to the same effect :

e.g., He came by train and by surprise (as the first prepositional phrase answers the question by what ? it is easily identified as a prepositional object of means of transportation while the second prepositional phrase cannot answer a similar question, the right question applying to it being how ? ; thus identifying

it as an adverbial modifier of manner).

He came home late and drunk. (late is naturally an adverbial modifier of time, answering the question when ?, while drunk has various interpretations - as a predicative adjunct of state (answering the question "in what state ?" as an adverbial modifier of manner or perhaps as part of a double predicate "He came home and he was drunk when he came" = he came drunk - cf. the respective section in the lecture on predicates; home offers no difficulty in being interpreted as an adverbial modifier of place, though of course, one cannot fail to notice that apparently it looks like the other elements after the predicate, yet it cannot be homogeneous with them).

He gladly and frequently goes there with flowers and a smile on his lips (while the first two adverbial modifiers are easily identified as an adverb of manner proper - gladly - and an adverb of frequency - frequently -, with flowers is naturally a prepositional object - probably instrumental, judging by its preposition and function ; with a smile on his lips refers to the manner in which the subject performs the action, which points clearly to an adverbial modifier of manner, possibly reduced to an absolute construction He drank his tea with lemon (prepositional object)

and with satisfaction (adverbial modifier of manner - a previously quoted example of Dickensian humour).

Therefore, not all elements in the sentence which are similar in appearance are at all times homogeneous.

1.2. There is a certain amount of disagreement among grammarians when within one utterance or written sentence several predicates are to be found. If we follow the line which we adopt regarding other parts of the sentence, we could easily say that in the translation of Caesar's famous words "I came, saw (and) conquered" there are three homogeneous predicates, appended to the same subject - naturally absent from the Latin original "Veni, vidi, vici". On the other hand, some people consider that, since the prevalent opinion among modern grammarians identifies the predicate as the essential part of a sentence (much more important than the other principal part of the sentence, the subject) each predicate points to one clause/sentence. Therefore, the Latin adage is considered to include three clauses represented by the three predicates - which has sufficient logical support, all the more so as the subject need not be repeated when identical for several predicates (cf. the last part of the lecture on the subject). Still, in the sentence "I saw and bought the book", in the interpretation that two predicates point to two sentences/clauses, we come up against the difficulty that these predicates have both the same subject and the same direct object.

In our opinion, such an utterance should be considered one sentence (in other cases clause) with homogeneous predicates, because there are identical elements linked to the different predicates, therefore binding the various syntactical elements in one unit. As to the former example, the quotation from Caesar, we subscribe to the idea that it includes three clauses, coordinated asyndetically - which was perfectly possible in Latin grammar, and acceptable, though not with great frequency, in English and other modern languages.

2.0. INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS IN THE SENTENCE

Besides the parts of the sentence which discharge a definite syntactical function, utterances and their written correspondents may also include words or groups of words which are classifiable morphologically as adverbs, interjections, etc. but are not classifiable syntactically, that is they do not discharge a definite syntactical function.

2.0.1. They are called independent elements, both because their role is parenthetical, that is inessential or even irrelevant for the gist or the principal meaning of the sentence, and because they are arranged parenthetically in the sentence, that is separated from its body by a comma. Their connection with the nucleus or focus of the sentence is too weak to justify their fulfilling any syntactical function and so they were placed somewhat outside the sentence. Therefore, whether they take place 0 - i.e. at the head of the sentence or clause, but separated from its body by a comma -

or at the end of the sentence or clause (place VIII or subsequently) also separated by a comma from the sentence body, and even when inserted or embedded into the body of the sentence again between commas, they can never be ascribed any role discharged towards any of the main or secondary parts of the sentence.

2.0.2. They usually have the role of qualifying the meaning of the sentence as a whole, though this qualification is not felt as essential enough to justify its expression by one of the normal parts of the sentence, moreover being apt to be eliminated without difficulty - for instance in translation. As a matter of fact, in processes of re-wording, paraphrasing, interpreting or translating, these independent elements may change their place.

2.1. Independent elements are of various types, the first being provided by interjections and exclamations.

They do not have an easily discernible syntactical function but a closer analysis might reveal either of the following two subdivisions :

2.1.1. Onomatopoeic interjections, imitating sounds in nature - the noise produced by natural phenomena, by plants, trees, animals, mechanical devices, etc. as well as physiologic-al noises (hiccough, coughing, gnashing one's teeth, giggling, etc.) - with or without the role of expressing attitudes, feelings, etc.

They are naturally used as exclamations, that is followed by an exclamation mark (often used for enlivening the style of

conversation or writing). But, through conversion they can become nouns, adverbs, or may form adjectival and other derivatives or compounds.

2.1.2. Exclamations proper, expressing all kinds of feelings, therefore being another way of conveying modality, that is the speaker's or writer's attitude.

They are also accompanied by exclamation marks, at least in most cases.

2.1.2.1. Some interjections may in fact represent the contraction or epitome of a whole sentence :

e.g., Out ! may mean Go out !

Excellent ! may mean The situation is excellent

Your proposal/suggestion/achievement etc. is excellent ! or I gladly agree with you/to your suggestion/proposal, etc.

Never ! may seem I will never do such a thing/accept your proposal, etc.

All this actually shows that the exclamation preserves a fairly large amount of the semantic force/content of the adverb used here interjectionally.

Such exclamations may in fact be defined as sentences elliptical of their subject, of the linking verb, etc. (a subject which is studied in connection with elliptical and one-member sentences).

2.1.2.2. But the exclamations which concern us more closely at this point are those integrated within the framework of a sentence, though not sufficiently merged or linked with its meaning. So, in examples like :

- (1) Well, I can't give you the answer on the spot.
- (2) Good, then we can work together.
- (3) All right, we shall drop the matter for the moment.
- (4) O.K., let's go on to the next point.

the connection with the bulk of the sentence or with its principal meaning occupies various places on a scale of coherence, ranging from a very weak connection to one verging on the connection between any coordinated clause within a complex sentence. Thus, examples (2) and (3) seem to be close enough to conclusive elements, therefore seem on the threshold of resultative/consecutive sentences/clauses, though being rather the equivalent of the main clause :

We are agreed, therefore we can work together for sentence (2) or Since you do not agree, I am yielding to you and I accept to drop the matter. The same reasoning can apply to other examples - hence the difficulties of interpretation.

2.1.2.3. Sometimes, exclamations may form part of a complex sentence, reproducing a conversation or a narrative including a dialogue in direct speech ("Hurrah!" he said), or in free indirect speech (= "stil indirect liber"), e.g., He said O.K., and we went to have coffee together.

2.2. Direct address (= "formule de adresare") are words used especially at the beginning, in the middle or at the end of the English sentences, (though in Romanian they may occasionally take different or reversed places, for purposes of clarity) in order to call the listener's or listeners'

attention.

2.2.1. Therefore they are through their very nature bound up with the vocative case, and as this case is either disregarded by grammarians or not given the full status of the other cases, especially because no syntactical role can be specifically ascribed to it, words used as direct address do not find a proper role in the sentence.

2.2.2. For the same reasons, when we see syntactical phenomena in their inter-relationship with morphological and phonetic ones, we notice that these elements do not employ any of the nuclear tones (which, being kinetic, involve some meaning or emotion - cf. interjections) being uttered in one of the level/static tones. Usually, the high level tone is employed for beginnings, as the initial part of a speech, etc. is destined to call everybody's attention.

e.g., - Ladies and gentlemen, we are resuming the debates of this session.

- Dear delegates and guests : I am calling this meeting to order (= "declar sedința deschisă")

- Sir, I'd like to see you at your office.

- Mr. Johnson, my answer is in the affirmative.

(As this formula discharges rather an introductory role, not exactly destined to call attention, the place of the "direct address word" is optional.

e.g., - "My answer, Sir, is in the affirmative"

or "My answer is in the affirmative, Sir."

(the low level tone is used for it in all cases)

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2.3. Paranthesetical words are not closely connected to the sentence, although their role may be fairly similar either to adverbial modifiers of various kinds or to anaphorical elements.

Again, the role of such elements is not perceived by the speaker or writer as essential to the meaning of the sentence or as sufficiently relevant to warrant their inclusion in any other means of expressing their relation to the semantic force of the utterance/writing. The way in which they condition or qualify the sentence is weak and that is why they are occasionally considered mere expletives (= "cuvinte de umplutură", alike to the various elements added in order to make a drug assimilated easily - especially some of them, like the hesitating beginning of many English sentences :

e.g., - Well, you see, as a matter of fact, I am
afraid I am not very sure I really
understood what you were driving at.

2.3.o. Paranthesetical words are in fact of various kinds in keeping with both what they convey and with the degree of relevance to the meaning of the sentence :

2.3.1. Words which affirm or deny something, with a rather strong connection with the predicate or with other elements in the sentence, therefore sometimes approaching the role of true adverbial modifiers. Their place in the sentence is indifferent, while following the rule that a foremost element in the sentence acquires the greatest amount of prominence :

e.g., -Indeed, he is a clever child (Stronger than He, indeed, is a clever child and even than He is a clever child indeed, though the last example seems to include an adverb proper ; on the other hand, in the original example the anaphorical reference to the previous conversation is much more obvious).

- Of course, I have nothing against going there. (Also current in the forms : I, of course, have nothing against going there with possible contrast of person, however, implying that other people are or may be against it ; or I've got nothing against going there, of course, which is absolutely neutral and flat, evincing neither emphasis/contrast nor co-referential elements).

2.3.2. Modal words, more closely connected with the meaning of the sentence, especially with its main part, - the predicate. Theoretically, their modal meaning may refer to any modality whatever. Practically, however, they refer especially to probability, condition, concession.

Such words as perhaps, maybe, allegedly, presumably, possibly, though not sufficiently connected with the predicate to be treated as adverbial modifiers (in Latin, adverbium meant "standing by the verb") lend some colour to the meaning of the sentence, therefore playing an ancillary role to the whole utterance/sentence/clause. But, again, unlike adverbial

modifiers proper, they can be dropped altogether, without the sentence being deprived of anything essential.

On the other hand, the colour lent by the above-mentioned words is not necessarily that of probability apparently conveyed by them, but maybe a nuance of doubt, concession, reluctance, etc. of the assertion.

2.3.3. Anaphorical words are elements which establish a connection with what was said before. They could be called connectives, but the link with the previous elements may be a reference of various natures : merely pointing backwards, correlative, adversative or concessive, disjunctive, etc. The most frequent words used in this capacity by English people are : nevertheless, however, yet, still (mostly adversative), though (concessive), therefore, thus, so, then, (conclusive), etc. What distinguishes them from the identical elements commonly labelled conjunctions or adverbs with definite functions in the sentence, is again their independent status : isolated by commas, in point of punctuation, uttered in a flat tone - the low level tone - in point of phonetics, therefore relegated not to a subordinate place but to an insignificant or quasi-irrelevant role.

2.4. Explanatory words are again used with a non-syntactical function, by way of a supplementary addition to the sentence, clarifying one or several minor points in it.

These points refer to the speaker's attitude (in a sort of personal justification) or appeal to the interlocutor understanding or sympathy, or establish some kind of

sympathetic mutual connection with him or give vividness to the conversation (when they are not mere expletives, meant to give the speaker time to find the word, expression or idea about which he or she hesitates).

Generally speaking, these elements give some kind of emotional, situational or logical framework to the situation.

e.g., - Personally, I quite agree with you.

- You see, I was not in very easy circumstances at the time.

- My aunt and I, you know, are not on the best terms.

- The evening performances, I'm afraid, begins at eight o'clock sharp.

Note : For this matter, cf. also adverbial clauses of exception and of relation (in the lecture on the complex sentence).

XIII THE ORDER OF WORDS IN THE SENTENCE

o.1. As Modern English has preserved very few synthetic elements from Anglo-Saxon (Old English) and as its general aspect is that of a highly analytic language, the word order has long since become an important and more often than not an indispensable factor for establishing and discerning the correct relationships between the various parts of a sentence.

o.2. In contemporary English, word order (also called the order of words in the sentence, but never with the counterpart of Romanian "topică") is considered to be more fixed and unshakeable in English than in other contemporary languages. It is in this light that we must consider things in the domain of syntactical relations, moreover noticing that most of the positional rules that govern English sentences are logical enough.

o.2.1. For instance, one of the most ~~hard-and-fast~~ rules governing English sentences is that the direct object should not be separated from the transitive verb to which it is logically connected. Therefore, considering that the very essence of transitivization lies in the transcendence of the action of a verb beyond its limits, out towards other words - namely its direct objects (simple, coordinated, complex, etc.) - that the direct object is the very raison d'être of a transitive verb, it is quite easy to understand why English

people do their utmost in order to keep the two inter-related parts of the sentence close together.

In fact, as we summarized in the lectures on the Direct Object and the Indirect Object, except for the latter, no other part of the sentence normally separates the former from its transitive verb.

o.3. As regards the other parts of the sentence, roughly speaking, the nomina gravitate around the subject if they are connected with it, and should not be removed from its proximity, the verba gravitate around the predicate (usually in an order which somehow evinces the hierarchy human - objective - circumstantial) while the truly external / circumstantial elements (adverbial modifiers) tend towards the extremities of the sentence, normally towards its end, while some of them may be placed at its beginning, with a certain amount of prominence (ascribing a foremost place to a word is one of the means of emphasis).

o.4. These general considerations and the detailed description of the places taken by the various parts of the sentence hold good in their essence and to a surprisingly high degree for all the four types of utterances/sentences, classified in point of content/of the speaker's or writer's intention (according to modality : declarative sentences, (with certain minor changes for the negative ones) as well as interrogative (subdivided into general and special questions, with certain peculiarities - in fact the most substantial changes), imperative (involving just the omission of the

subject in literary speech) and exclamatory (normally occasioning a number of changes since the emotions they involve alter the purely logical pattern and if strong enough they may even break it).

All the changes from one type of sentence to the other, concentrate upon the initial places in the sentence (the first two or three at most) in our arrangement (O,I,II) while leaving all the other places entirely unchanged (in most cases even when emphasis is desired - as discussed in the respective lecture).

o.5. We propose the following arrangement developed from the one taught by prof. Levičhi :

A. DECLARATIVE SENTENCES

1.o. PLACE O. This place in the sentence, preceding the subject, is not always filled, being therefore relatively unimportant (as compared to other places which are indispensable). It is optional for most of the elements that take it and which therefore normally have another, sometimes fitter, place in it. We have called it O, precisely because it does not affect the normal numbering, as well as because O may recall the word "optional".

As will be seen in sections 2, 3 and 4, the changes brought about by the transition to interrogative, imperative and exclamatory sentences, refer mainly to this place in the sentence.

1.o.1. In declarative sentences place O may be held by adverbial modifiers of definite time (or by some indefinite

time), by adverbial modifiers of manner, of attending / attendant circumstances or - much more rarely - of place (mainly for contrast). It therefore appears as being the apaanage of adverbial modifiers (their frequency in this position is approximately that of the order of their enumeration) and thus, any other parts of the sentence taking it, that is preceding the subject, do so only in cases of emphasis or special contrast.

1.0.2. Adverbial modifiers of definite time, taking the initial place instead of the final one of the sentence, do not become emphatic but naturally do acquire a certain amount of prominence, sometimes implying contrast with some other temporal element.

e.g., Tomorrow you'll be much better (It is quite clear that the interlocutor is not well today).

At ten o'clock he was not yet there (The implication is that he may have arrived there in the meantime).

Yesterday it was much colder than in January.
(The contrast is obvious).

Note : Adverbial modifiers of indefinite time used here may also be interpreted as denoting in fact manner :

e.g., Usually/Normally, John is in a hurry (Two implications :

a) Hurry characterizes John - John is a hasty man ;

b) Surprisingly enough today he isn't/wasn't hasty)

1.0.3. Adverbial modifiers of manner holding position 0 seem in most cases to affect the sentence as a whole (cf. also Note under 1.0.2). To put it differently, the speaker or writer ascribes this place to them in order to use them as modifiers to the entire sentence (or clause(s) inside a compound or complex sentence).

e.g., Actually/Incidentally/Personally, I do not much care for Brahms.

Such examples are subject to several interpretations : on the one hand, in a stricto sensu analysis of the meaning of sentences, incidentally, actually, personally are some of those adverbs most often quoted in order to point out how the meaning of the sentence is partially or totally altered or at least qualified by a change in their place. On the other hand, when the adverb is placed in front of the subject and separated from it by a comma (therefore a pause and a change of tone in speech) it somehow places itself beyond the pale of the main trend of thought, which justifies its interpretation as an independent element. We must therefore resort to further examples :

e.g., In this way, he managed to win all the matches. (There is a certain amount of prominence, yet it is not as emphatic as in a construction of the type : It + ... that, for most of the sentences in a conversation possess some anaphoric element or another, very much as in this case).

e.g., Naturally he could not come by the afternoon train.

Of course he will do it one of these days.

Normally there are several solutions that can be applied (cf. also Note under 1.o.2).

1.o.4. Adverbial modifiers of attending/attendant circumstances (for definition and discussion cf. the Lecture on Adverbial Modifiers) are frequently enough employed in this place in the sentence, because through their very nature they are apt to modify or qualify the entire sentence.

e.g., In the darkness, nothing could be seen but a small gleam in the distance.

With nothing to do that afternoon, he took a walk.

1.o.5. Adverbial modifiers of place do appear in a relatively high number of sentences in this position, but mainly when contrast is implied. We could say that Romanians more especially should refrain from beginning their sentences with In Bucharest, In Romania, In our/this country, etc. for sometimes they may involve some vain, pretentious, undesirable, unpleasant contrast which besides seeming incongruous or unwarranted to English people, may perhaps offend them too.

e.g., In the mountains it has snowed, but there is no snow in the plains (of course the second clause could also have begun with the adverbial modifier of place).

In the countryside I have often come across such costumes.

In Bucharest there is a philharmonic orchestra.

While in the first two examples the contrast (explicit in the first, and implicit in the second) is justified, the third example creates a rather erroneous and undesirable effect, as a foreigner, for instance, might infer from such a structure of the sentence, that Bucharest is the only (Romanian) city that boasts a philharmonic orchestra. Therefore, we consider that in the third example which is a mere neutral statement of facts, we should avoid any implications by employing the normal, entirely unemphatic word order :

e.g., There is a philharmonic orchestra in Bucharest.

1.1. PLACE I. Properly speaking, the first place in the sentence (that is when the optional place 0 is not filled). This position is normally held by the element which forms the theme/topos for discussion, that is the subject, which in English sentences is expressed or explicit in the great majority of cases. If we take into account the indications given in the lecture on the Subject, except for the normal cases of ellipsis we do find subjects - even if expressed by personal pronouns - at the head of declarative as well as other English sentences (that is as an anaphoric element, sometimes more prominent than other elements in the sentence but never as much as its main focus - the predicate).

As we shall see in section 2, and as is well-known already, partial inversion of the subject occurs in interrogative sentences.

1.1.1. The attributes of the subject accompany it on place I (in the terms discussed under 1.1o).

1.2. PLACE II. The second place in the sentence is taken by the predicate, in conformity with the rules of logic, which are rather strictly applied in English. There are, however, short elements which introduce some corrections/qualifications to this rule.

1.2.1. Short adverbial modifiers (usually one word and only occasionally two words) of manner, of indefinite time or of frequency (cf. the lecture on Adverbial Modifiers) may be placed together with the predicate, if some special importance is attached to them, that is when they somehow modify the meaning of the entire sentence. This type of prominence is not exactly emphatic, for true emphasis is obtained for them by the utilization of the "introductory emphatic it" constructions.

In saying that such adverbs accompany the predicate, in fact we refer to the following three situations :

- 1.2.1.1.(a) When there is only one verbal form in the verbal predicate the adverbial modifier precedes that verb, i.e. it is placed between the subject and verb :
- e.g., He usually comes here in the morning.
- He of course agreed to our proposal.
- He (only) recently took his degree in physics.

1.2.1.2.(b) When the predicate includes two verbal forms (either a compound verbal predicate - modal or aspect - or still a simple verbal predicate but including an auxiliary) as well as when it is a nominal predicate the adverb is placed after the first verb (whether auxiliary, modal or linking verb).
e.g., He has often told me so.

You can never tell (therefore the title of Bernard Shaw's play You Never Can Tell is emphatic).

He is still here.

He was still waiting.

He will always postpone actions, etc.

1.2.1.3.(c) If there are several verbal elements in the predicate (therefore either a mixed type of predicate or even a simple verbal predicate which requires several auxiliaries) still the adverb comes immediately after the first verbal element (whether auxiliary, modal or linking verb) :

e.g., I should (quite) gladly have accepted the invitation.

He has (rather) scornfully tried to reject our proposal.

He is as usual having his breakfast in his room, etc.

1.3. PLACE III. The third place in the sentence is usually taken by the indirect object when short (not preceded by prepositions and not accompanied by attributes) or - if it fails to fulfil these conditions - by the direct object, which may be accompanied by its attributes (cf. also the discussion in the lectures on the Direct Object and Indirect Object).

1.3.1. In accordance with the reasons stated under 0.2 about the inseparable links between the direct object and its transitive verb, normally the direct object should be entitled to place III. Nevertheless, the only deviation from this rule is that in favour of the indirect object (in the conditions mentioned at the beginning of this point). The reasons for this belong in several spheres : from the phonetic point of view, a sentence like I gave him the book has better fluency and intonational contour than I gave the book to him ; moreover, the latter form is on the one hand slightly more emphatic and on the other hand apt to give rise to undesirable or unconscious contrast of person, as it happens especially with foreigners who give sentence stress to the pronoun in the dative - this being unnatural in English ; from the point of view of the general logic of English speakers - usually reflected in the structure of their sentences - objects or other parts of the sentence denoting persons normally take precedence over those denoting non-human beings, objects, abstract ideas, etc. All the other reasons are discussed at greater length in the

above-mentioned lectures.

1.3.2. Therefore, in the natural course of things there are two main types of arrangement (or situations) of the direct and indirect objects :

(a) I sent him/the boy/my friend a telegram (possible continuation : describing to him/in which I have described all the details of the position that is now ... , etc. etc.- without any restriction of length).

(b) I sent a telegram (no restriction of length as to the attributes) to my friend who (any attributes to the indirect object may now follow, without any restriction of length).

In the light of phonetic, logical as well as grammatical considerations, the conclusion corresponding to the actual contemporary usage is quite simple : as indirect objects are in most cases nouns, proper names or pronouns denoting persons, it is highly advisable to give them place III in the sentence - barring the cases when they include long attributes. So, a short indirect object is not considered to break the logical connection between the transitive verb and its direct object, on the contrary it may be thought as forming a unitary whole, all the more so as the verbs taking an indirect object for the most part denote the transmission or conveyance of something concrete or abstract (cf. the Introduction to the lecture on the Indirect Object).

1.4. PLACE IV is naturally the opposite or foil of place III, that is it will normally be filled by one or the other of the elements which could take either place III or place IV : to put it differently, if the indirect object fulfils all the conditions for assuming place III in the sentence, it is the direct object that will take place IV. The situation may be reversed in the opposite case (cf. the discussion under 1.3) but no other element in the sentence normally separates them.

From the practical point of view, we notice that usually - probably for reasons of symmetry or harmony of the sentence - the shorter of the two elements comes closer to the predicate, while the longer one gravitates towards the extremities. In the cases of the type (a) construction - with the structure S + P + I.O. + D.O - the nucleus of the sentence, that is the predicate plus closer objects, may form one and the same sense unit as part of the utterance (moreover, if the subject too is short and there are no other elements at the end, the sentence as a whole may be taken as a sense group/unit (usually if it does not exceed 12 - 14 syllables). On the other hand, if there are attributes - and mainly in the form of nouns preceded by prepositions, to say nothing of attributive clauses - it goes without saying that there will be several sense groups and occasionally each of the objects will form one.

1.5. PLACE V. It is usually filled by the

prepositional object, because in point of its importance and of its degree of closeness to the predicate, it stands in an intermediate position between the other two objects and the adverbial modifiers. Generally speaking, we notice that its place is not absolutely unchangeable, for "verb + adverb" syntagms (e.g., to go home/to school, etc.) may remove it or relegate it towards the end of the sentence.

Usually, however, the prepositional object has position V in the sentence, because it is more related to the function and the meaning of the predicate than the adverbial modifiers (which denote the modality, the time, the location, etc. of the action) while being less intimately connected with the predicate than the direct or indirect object of transitive verbs. In fact, the prepositional object may accompany any kind of verb and so, if there are no direct or indirect objects, it may come next to the predicate (while if it modifies/qualifies a noun or adjective, it will be linked by the preposition to them.)

As shown in the lecture on the prepositional object, its nature is not as well defined as that of other parts of the sentence (possibly also because the grammars of other languages do not discuss it) and the relations it expresses are manifold and diverse. (We must recall that its very discrimination and definition are made rather on the basis of formal criteria).

1.5.2. Although in principle we could say that the criterion of human taking precedence over non-human should

apply, nevertheless usage tends (as it happens in all languages) to impose an entirely different practical criterion as more important : traditional combinations, syntagms based on the semantic, situational and contextual relationship between words may give rise to rules stronger than those in grammar (therefore with logical motivation). So, such traditional combinations as to go to school, to be on holidays, etc. bring about - by dint of usage - not only changes as regards noun determination, etc., but also changes in the order of words. So, a stable combination such as to go home, which appears as solid as if it were a compound, has all the chances of dislocating and removing the prepositional object - for instance the sociative one :

e.g., I usually go home/go to school, etc. with Henry. (Nowadays it is impossible to change this into I usually go with Henry to school).

Apart from these deviations (not many in number but rather impossible to alter) the rule ascribing place V to the prepositional objects is observed throughout :

e.g., He writes his letters to me in pencil, etc. (on thin, etc. paper) from his mother's house in Braşov.

He always reads his lessons together with his school fellows in the classroom before going home at lunch time.

He prefers to travel by plane to any place, whatever the season.

We have had several discussions about such matters at our assemblies at the end of each month these past three years.

1.6.o. PLACE VI. It inaugurates the sequence of adverbial modifiers, which in most cases is opened by those of manner. The normal order of the most frequently employed adverbial modifiers in English is "alphabetical" : Manner, Place, Time (usually referring to those of definite time, for those of indefinite time and frequency generally accompany the predicate, as we saw under 1.2.2).

1.6.1. The adverbial modifiers of manner are therefore placed immediately after the prepositional object (in case the sentence does contain all these elements) but, of course, a short adverbial of manner may be placed at the head of a sentence or clause, especially if semantically it affects its entire meaning or if it is felt by the speaker as bearing on the whole sentence or clause (Therefore some prominence is acquired).

1.6.2. Attention must be paid to the distinction in English between adverbial modifiers of manner proper, and those of degree, intensity, measure, etc. The latter do not modify anything, they just determine or qualify (especially numerically or quantitatively) an adjective or another adverb, and therefore they are placed together with those parts of speech.

1.7. PLACE VII. As mentioned before, this position is filled by the adverbial modifier of place, in case most

or all elements of a sentence are present. Anyhow, in the absence of other elements (especially places III - VI) because such adverbial modifiers usually accompany intransitive verbs showing location, direction or state, they may come closer to the verb to which they are semantically, contextually and situationally related. Anyhow they precede adverbial modifiers of definite time (and any other adverbial modifiers which occur less frequently in English sentences).

This rule should be observed throughout - and in fact we notice that it is one of the frequent sources of mistakes for Romanians, even in very simple patterns such as He was born at Ipotești in 1850. (That is why, for practical reasons we insist on the teaching of the simple word-order segment "Manner - Place - Time" even at an early phase of learning English).

e.g., He (unexpectedly) sent me a letter through
a friend (quite unexpectedly) to my new
address a few days ago.

1.8. PLACE VIII. Usually, this last place in our arrangement is held by the adverbial modifier of definite time. But, moreover, since not all the other places in the sentence are always taken and on the other hand there may also be other types of adverbial modifiers - less frequently employed - we must add that we have not ascribed a special place to the latter, considering that they will anyhow take this final position.

As for the adverbial of definite time (the sub-division of the adverbials of time into this sub-category and that of adverbials of indefinite time and frequency appears as indispensable) it is seen to gravitate towards the extremities of the utterance or written sentence taking either this place (as part of the normal pattern) or place 0 (with a slight degree of prominence, for purposes of contrast or for emphasis proper).

Romanians, perhaps more particularly, have to remember that adverbial modifiers of definite time follow those of place (cf. 1.7) if they occur together.

e.g., I met him in the park yesterday.

I received several letters from him at my place in the countryside during the holidays (cf. also the examples under 1.7).

New blocks of flats appear in Bucharest and in other towns practically every month.

This is one of the examples of sentences in which the adverbial modifier of indefinite time takes the same place VIII - as that of definite time.

1.9. Adverbial modifiers of other types (cf. the respective lecture) take a final position in the sentence, after all its other parts. Most usually there are not more than eight places in the sentence (or clauses), but if we refer to a complete/an ideal sentence, which should include all possible parts we can conceive it like this :

He (actually) sent me a letter through a friend unexpectedly

I	II	III	IV	V	VI
---	----	-----	----	---	----

to my home address yesterday (in order) to express his worry

VII	VIII	IX (purpose)
-----	------	--------------

because of my illness.

X (cause)

1.10. Attributes accompany the nouns in the sentence/ clause which they modify, determine or qualify in the following two ways : preceding them if they are adjectives or adjectivized nouns and following them if they are expressed by prepositions + nouns, infinitives, etc.

1.11. Subordinate clauses - when introduced asyndetically (cf. lecture on the complex sentence) have a conjunction, a relative pronoun, adverbs - relative or otherwise - at their head, that is in place 0.

B. INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES

2.0. Word order is subject to certain changes in questions but they affect mainly places 0 and I. As a matter of fact, out of the subdivision of questions into several categories, from the point of view we are now interested in, only the distinction between general and special/particular questions is important. As it will be seen further on, it entails the subdivision of place 0 into O_a and O_b (for special questions).

2.1. In general questions, the so-called grammatical

inversion which is often described as a substantial change in word order, in fact affects only place 0.

This optional place, or anyhow a place outside the main body or structure of the sentence is taken in general questions by an anomalous finite - that is either an auxiliary (for tense, aspect or voice) or one of the anomalous modal verbs (defective or non-defective).

Analysing a formula proposed by certain grammarians for the interrogative - DSI, that is "Do + Subject + Infinitive" we notice that though easy to remember and synthetic enough, it oversimplifies matters. Actually, the correct formula would be ASN, that is "Anomalous Finite + Subject + Non-finite form of the verb" - which in fact constitutes the beginning of the sentence involving places 0, I and II, while the other places are left untouched.

e.g., Does he come here with his wife ?

Can you tell me his address ?

May I smoke here ?

Is he to join us tomorrow ?

Will I ever find him again ?

Have you got to go there daily ?

Was he speaking to you or to his brother ?

Have you been waiting long ?

Ought we to wait for them ?

Did he ring you up yesterday ? , etc.

2.2. On the other hand, special/particular questions, no longer referring to the validity/truth of a statement or

proposition as a whole, but to one element in the latter require a specific interrogative word to be given full prominence and that is why (in fact as it happens in many languages) it takes the place at the head of the sentence.

In our terms, this means the subdivision into O_a (for the interrogative word) and O_b (for the anomalous finite, which in general questions used to have place 0 all for itself).

O_a	O_b	I	II	III	IV, etc.
Why	did	you	come		late yesterday ?
How	did	he	enjoy	the performance ?	
When	did	you	(last) write		to him/(last) ?
Where	was	he	spending	the evening ?	
How long	have	we	known	each other ?	
When	can	Paul	return	that book ?	
At what time	had	he	spoken		to you before ringing me up ?

2.2.1. Interrogative-negative sentences follow either of these two patterns for the main types of the interrogative sentences, with the inclusion of the negation not between the subject and the notional verb, that is accompanying the main body of the predicate.

This place of the negation is justified by the fact that not can easily be interpreted as an adverb - namely an

adverbial modifier of manner, which normally takes its place inside the predicate (cf. 1.2).

On the other hand, as often as not, interrogative-negative sentences are formulated in conversation (obviously their main ground for utilization) in a contracted form. In these frequent cases, the negation attached to the anomalous finites (these being the only verbs which can coalesce with the negation, they are called "the 24 friends of NOT") obviously precedes the subject, in both general and special questions, always taking place O_p , since it forms one grammatical and phonetic unit with the anomalous finite.

e.g., Do you not like it ?

is in most cases formulated - or read aloud - as :

Don't you like it ?

Can you not set another day for the visit ?

obviously loses ground to the colloquial contracted form :

Can't you set another day for the visit ?

There are of course fluctuations and even exceptions to this rule, with the verb used to (which rarely occurs in the interrogative and even less frequently in the interrogative negative) and with the verb need, (for which we know from the chapter on modal verbs that there are semantic differences between its anomalous and non-anomalous usage, though its utilization in the interrogative and especially in the interrogative-negative is rare).

2.3. Alternative questions, questions asking for repetition, interrogative repetitions follow the patterns

for general questions or particular questions - whether interrogative or interrogative-negative - in keeping with the respective context.

2.4. Disjunctive questions proper, that is the part after the comma, which follows the declarative clause, take the pattern of general questions. Whether this pattern is interrogative proper or interrogative-negative, - depends on whether the declarative clause is negative or, on the contrary affirmative (as is well known).

2.4.1. We could summarize the pattern in the following formula :

Declarative clause		Disjunctive question
+	,	- ?
-	,	?

2.4.2. A parenthetical remark may not be actually superfluous : The disjunctive question proper is by all means bound to include the same anomalous finite as that present in the statement (or the verb to do if there was no such verb in it) and by all means in exactly the same tense.

e.g., He didn't write the letter last night, did he ?

You might have accepted the invitation,
mightn't you ?

You will come with us, won't you ?

He arrived quite punctually, didn't he ?

She look\$ wonderful, doesn't she ?

You didn't chance to meet him, did you ?

They weren't there to see you, were they ?

2.4.3. NOTE 1.- This should, of course, be borne in mind by people who (either under the influence of the Romanian disjunctive "nu-i așa ?", or because of the evident numerical preponderance of the disjunctive isn't it ? in English) employ the question isn't it ? even when the verb in the statement is different and/or in another tense.

2.4.4. NOTE 2.- The observation at 2.4.1 about the negative nature of the declarative clause refers to all ways of expressing the negative :

a) anomalous finite + not

e.g., He doesn't have any breakfast in the morning,
does he ?

He didn't have any supper last night, did he ?

b) verb + other negative words (the adjective no, the pronouns nobody, no one, none, nothing, etc., the adverb nowhere, etc.)

e.g., He knows nobody in this place, does he ?

He has no money, has he ?

She had no time, (or) had she ?

You could find him nowhere, (or) could you ?

There is no place for such behaviour, is there ?

c) Verb + restrictive adverbs (hardly, scarcely, only, etc.) unless inversion is used :

e.g., There is hardly any possibility for continuation,
is there ?

There were scarcely any people in the room, were there ?

He had hardly any books in the house, (or) had he ?

2.4.5. NOTE 3. There is also a much less frequent pattern of disjunctive questions, in which no negative at all appears, either in the statement or in the question proper :

e.g., He is clever, (or) is he ?

They sell their house cheap, (or) do they ?

She is punctual like all women, (or) is she ?

We easily notice that in most of these sentences the implications are negative or, at least, ironical/quizzical, that is they suggest the contrary of the statement. This is what the break of the normal pattern usually suggests.

C. IMPERATIVE SENTENCES

3.0. In standard English, imperative sentences proper, involving the second person singular and plural, are formed without the subject being expressed (cf. the observations on ellipsis).

Sometimes, however, the subject - that is the person(s) required to do something - may be mentioned before the sentence proper, as a vocative, - e.g. Madam, forgive me. (cf. "Direct address" in the lecture on Homogeneous and independent elements).

Nevertheless, this case of grammatical ellipsis is not always observed in familiar speech, where the subject may be present - e.g.: You go ahead, and I will follow (a certain

degree of emphasis may be perceived here).

3.1. Therefore, as a rule, word order in imperative sentences is changed only through the ellipsis of the subject which naturally affects merely place I in the sentence :

e.g., Try and do better next time.

Read a bit louder, please.

Please, do not dictate so fast.

3.2. The imperative for the first and third persons singular and plural - called by some grammars "imperative equivalents" - has the special pattern Let + Accusative + Short Infinitive which resembles that of general questions (except that the subject is not in the nominative but in the accusative) :

e.g.,

O	I	II	III	IV	etc.
Let	me	breakfast			quickly
Let	John	come			at the soonest
Let	her	tell	the manager about it		
Let	us	waste	no time		
Let	them	rehearse	the poem		at least twice

3.2.1. NOTE 1. Of course the contracted forms let's go, etc. let'im come, etc., let'em do it at once, etc. are much more frequent in spoken English.

3.2.2. NOTE 2. Although few people notice it, the three words forming this imperative pattern display the following grammatical homonymy, which we disambiguate only .

by analysing sentence-stress :

Let me go (Imperative, 2-nd person of the modal verb
to let + a notional verb = "dă-mi voie să plec"; "dă-mi drumul")

Let me go (Imperative, 1-st person of the verb to go
= "hai să mă duc", "ia să plec eu").

D. EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES

4.1. Exclamatory sentences often bring about more substantial changes in word order, though even these may not affect other places except O and I. Even in cases of inversion the latter is partial, that is only an anomalous finite from the predicate takes a place preceding the subject.

e.g., Never have I seen such beautiful landscapes !

How wonderful to be able to rest so long !

Seldom has she seemed so beautiful !

4.2. As we notice, the structure of exclamatory sentences may occasionally involve the location of a predicative in a foremost position. Such cases of inversion are discussed at greater length in the next lecture, devoted specially to this particular subject.

C O N C L U S I O N

5.1. Taken all in all, the patterns and sub-patterns which deviate from the standard arrangement of words in the sentence do not amount to many or essential changes, the latter being mainly confined to the beginning of the sentence or clause. They are as a matter of fact "standard",

"predictable" deviations.

5.2. The other deviations which we may meet in texts, in conversation, etc. may also be predictable to a certain extent, and may be grouped under some sub-rules, especially those of inversion - grammatical or stylistic (cf. the respective lecture).

5.3. One can identify the following main reasons for infringing the standard word order :

- a) syntagms and traditional combinations - generally proving stronger than grammar rules ;
- b) emphasis - that is intentional deviations from noun and generating special sub-rules ;
- c) emotion - that is a strong affective participation in speech, introducing new patterns in syntax and phonetics ;
- d) other, more marked stylistic considerations - such as the deliberate (or unconscious) adoption of a certain style in jargon (specific to a limited group) leading principally to ellipsis.

XIV.- I N V E R S I O N

0.1. In spite of the fact that contemporary English is generally characterized by an order of words much better crystallized than in other languages, nevertheless there are quite a number of cases when inversion is recommended or even absolutely necessary. This accounts for the importance attached to inversion in various English grammars. The most comprehensive of the latter offer a substantial list of cases and instances, yet the systematization differs to a certain extent especially as regards the scope of the notion and the distinction between rules and stylistic or idiomatic usage.

1.0. Generally speaking, inversion is the label appended to any deviation from the set of rules included in the notion of word order. In a lato sensu outlook, therefore, any movement of one part of the sentence from the place ascribed to it by the rules derived from modern and contemporary English usage, can be described as inversion. In a stricto sensu view, not all fluctuations and variations of usage are given this name, considering also the fact that such minor changes are frequent enough - some of them under motivation, others in free variation - as was shown extensively in the tables and rules included in our previous chapter.

1.1. Most changes in the order of words that are covered by the term of inversion, include also the modification in the relative position of the subject and the predicate or part of the latter (that is the anomalous finite which is normally supposed to follow the subject with which it is

closely bound up, by the very fact that a finite is a verbal form influenced by a subject in point of person and number).

On the other hand, a rather frequent problem is that of the relative place of the direct object - the possibility of its changing places with the indirect object obeys the definite rules specified in the previous chapter, but its proximity to the transitive verb with which it is in a relation of interdependence, is subject to a certain amount of variation which may be either justified or unjustified.

1.2. Taken all in all, if we try to summarize various opinions on deviations from word order, we could say that what is governed by rules - i.e. cases of obligatory or recommended inversion - should be named grammatical inversion. Conversely, what is subject to variations - justified either by some general factors, possibly objective, or, more frequently, by individual, subjective desires or intentions (therefore covered by the comprehensive notion of modality) is usually called stylistic inversion. We can easily agree with such a conception, because it once more points out the close connection between modality (as a form of individual intentionality) and style (as the latter's expression).

1.3. Another conception deriving from the analysis of the realities of the language, leads to a different subdivision of inversion: changes affecting merely relative the position of the subject and of the anomalous finite are considered cases of partial inversion, whereas more substantial changes, affecting other parts of the sentence as well are called total inversion.

1.4. The fact is that, on comparing the lists of cases systematized on the basis of the two classifications, one reaches the conclusion that, by and large, partial inversion corresponds to grammatical inversion (although not being completely superposed upon it) while total inversion covers rather the cases of stylistic inversion (mainly connected with modality).

1.5. Given both the diversity of cases of inversion and the above-mentioned difficulties of classification, it results that it is no easy matter to remember all these cases and especially to know whether they are grammatical or stylistic. Roughly speaking, however, we could associate grammatical inversion with the idea of compulso^riness, of rules, of standard norm which cannot be infringed without swerving from correctness. On the other hand, stylistic inversion may be associated with individual variation, with accidental or frequent though not obligatory situations, with specific occurrences which generate a smaller or a greater amount of emotion, (therefore modality) and thus cause people to deviate from the general rule. To put it differently, unusual occasions call for unusual means of expression. Psychological responses are naturally reflected in language and changes in the order of words are among such means.

1.6. Moreover, this attempt at systematization through correlation between general and individual seems to be reflected in the fact that grammatical inversion brings about only a minimum of changes in the sentence (in its initial part alone, as shown in various sections of the former chapter), while stylistic inversion may occur in various

places of the sentence, as it is governed by less standardized, less regular, more subjective factors.

But, as we have noticed, the inversion affecting just the beginning of a sentence, is more usually called partial.

1.7. On the other hand, certain deviations from the rules governing the order of words (placing adjectives in post-position and prepositions in final position) could be termed inversion , without being either grammatical (compulsory) or stylistic (emphatic, etc). They are due rather to usage, as a tradition which has been gaining much ground for some time. We have taken the liberty of discussing them separately, under the heading Traditional and other cases of inversion - section 4 of this lecture.

NOTE : Learners of English should at all times stand warned that while observing the indications referring to inversion is important, it is as important not to use inversion unnecessarily, (that is to preserve the normal order of words) when nothing warrants it. For instance, (learning from the rather large amount of mistakes made in this respect) on changing from direct into indirect speech, questions turn into normal direct object clauses and therefore the usual order of words should be restored.

2.0. In the conception which we have adopted, grammatical inversion is therefore one or another of the instances in which a definite and inviolable grammatical rule requires us to place an element normally subsequent in front of the one that normally precedes it (mainly the anomalous finite in front of its subject and the direct object in

front of the transitive verb governing it).

In classifying the typical instances of grammatical inversion we should start with interrogative and interrogative-negative sentences, as they appear to be the most frequent. Yet, since currency is difficult to establish accurately, we shall try to arrange the material within the frame of the classification of sentences in points of the speaker's or writer's attitude - therefore declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory.

2.1. In declarative sentences, grammatical inversion appears in the following main situations:

2.1.1. Sentences or clauses resuming an antecedent either in the affirmative (with the help of so) or in the negative (with the help of neither or nor) :

e.g., "I am desperately tired !" "So am I!"

"They were delighted with the performance."

"So were we."

"John hasn't arrived yet". "Nor has your sister, for that matter".

"You didn't ring me up yesterday !" "Neither did you".

As regards such answers the following systematization can be introduced :

A) Answers confirming the parallelism of subjects in doing similar actions or the same action, or being in a similar or the same state (in the affirmative), usually follow the pattern with inversion : " so + verb (nowadays only an anomalous finite) + subject."

e.g., " He goes there every weekend" "So do I/So

did I last year/So will I (do/go)
during the holidays"

"I can read and speak German". "So can I?"

"He is going to join the party a bit later".

"So is she /So is my sister".

B) Answers confirming the same kind of parallelism in the negative usually follow the pattern with inversion :
"neither + verb (nowadays only an anomalous finite) + subject :

e.g., "I don't like Brahms". "Neither did I in my
youth / Neither do I/ Neither does my
father".

"He couldn't arrive yesterday because of the
snow". "Neither could my cousin".

"She doesn't seem very studious". "Neither
does her sweetheart".

C) When the parallelism does not refer to the subject but to some other element in the sentence, the usual pattern is "nor + anomalous finite + subject + notional verb" :

e.g., "He doesn't seem to have read the book". "Nor
does he seem to have watched the film on
the TV".

"You can't come today, can you?" "Nor can I
come tomorrow, or the day after".

"He didn't ring me up last night". "Nor did
he ring up Henry, or myself (either)."

"Their father doesn't allow them to go dancing". "Nor does he let them play tennis,
for that matter."

Note 1 : As a matter of fact, in colloquial English, the

distinction between (B) and (C) is often overlooked, nor being employed at the beginning of most sentences, whether contrast/parallelism of person is involved or some other kind of parallelism/contrast: e.g., "Henry doesn't like our new colleague very much". "Nor/Neither do I".

"I don't think he should go to the match today". "Nor/Neither should you, in my opinion".

Note 2 : The word neither is often decomposed into "Not.... + either :

e.g., "I don't much care for football these days".
"I don't care much either".

"The weather is no longer very cold, is it?"
"And it is not so damp either".

"It isn't a very clever essay, is it?" "No,
and it isn't very gramatical/earnest/
well-informed either".

"You don't drink much, do you?" "(No,) nor do
I (either)".

D) On the other hand, there is a different type of confirmation, - confirmation proper we could say - of the action or state itself, which does not imply any opposition or contrast, being merely a reassertion (emphatic, in various degrees) of the action or state questioned or contested by the first speaker :

e.g., "You said you'd ring me up yesterday". "So
I did, but the line was engaged for
hours on end".

In such cases, practically the same words are employed, yet without inversion, according to the pattern "so + subject + anomalous finite" :

e.g., "You said you'd ring me up yesterday". " So I did, but the line was engaged for hours on end".

"He promised he'd help you with your home-work". "So he did, but only last night".

"You told me you'd start doing some exercise".

"So I will, beginning next week".

"You said he could speak Italian". "So he can, indeed, but in public he is a bit self-conscious".

"I think you ought to visit your sick aunt now and then". "So I ought, and I often do, if I have a spare afternoon".

Note: When the statement is negative, the confirmation usually follows a different pattern (still without inversion) : "no + subject + negative predicate" :

e.g., "He won't be able to manage by himself". "No, of course he won't (be able)".

"You shouldn't speak so harshly to your younger sister" "No, of course I shouldn't, but I occasionally lose patience with her".

2.1.2. There are two problems in the field of inversion connected with constructions of the there is / there are type in declarative sentences :

2.1.2.1. (a) On the one hand some grammarians do

not admit the subject-function of the word there, while some consider it a " false subject " or else " half-subject ". Therefore any construction of this in type in declarative sentences is considered a case of inversion :

e.g., One night there flew over the city a little swallow (O. Wilde, The Happy Prince).

2.1.2.2. (b) On the other hand, in stage directions and - more rarely - in elliptical speech, the word there may be omitted :

e.g., On the table is a bottle and six glasses.
On a sofa lies an open book. On the floor
newspapers thrown about.

Note : As it results from the last two sentences, these cases of inversion are closely bound up with the idea of conciseness, so any superfluous words can anyhow be omitted.

2.1.3. The same consideration may apply to sentences with the introductory subject here - also discussed in the respective section of the chapter on the Subject. The function of here (occasionally replaced by there even in this case) is exclamatory/announcing :

e.g., Here comes the boss !
Here, at last, is a true lover. (O. Wilde,
The Nightingale and the Rose).

Note 1: Attention must be paid to the fact that when the subject is expressed by a pronoun, the inversion no longer occurs even in these sentences where the words here or there have an announcing value:

e.g., Here he is! There he comes!

"Your spectacles ? Here they are !"

Note 2 : These announcing words are usually rendered into Romanian by the exclamatory words "iată" or "uite".

2.1.4. A type of grammatical inversion preserved in contemporary English from old usage occurs in subordinate conditional clauses when the conjunction "if" is omitted :

e.g., Should we meet again, we can talk at greater length.

Were I in his stead, I should act differently.

Had I received the telegram in due time, I should certainly have gone to her wedding.

As shown at greater length in section on Conditional Clauses in the Chapter devoted to Sequence of Tenses (XVII) the inversion is only possible when the predicate begins with an anomalous finite, therefore never with conditions referring to the future, always for conditions referring to the past (as all unreal and impossible conditions are expressed with the form of the subjunctive equivalent to the Past Perfect) and for unreal but possible conditions - referring to the Present or Future - only when an anomalous finite is present :

e.g., Had I had the book, I should certainly have read it.

Had I the book, I should read it (acceptable, and even in the colloquial form "Did I have the book").

but never for the future, where it can be replaced by a form including an anomalous finite which can stand for the future or imply it (as none of them have a future proper form) :

e.g., Were I to receive the book, I should read it.
Seen in greater detail the situations are as follows :

Inversion of the subject and the predicate in conditional clauses by dropping the conjunction "if", - can only be made with the help of an anomalous finite.

2.1.4.1. (a) Therefore, in clauses of real condition it is never made, except perhaps in the rare cases when an anomalous finite is present in them :

e.g., If you can come tomorrow (sometimes : Could/
Can you come tomorrow), we shall play bridge.

2.1.4.2. (b) In clauses of unreal condition referring to the present or future, the inversion is fairly often operated if anomalous finite is present :

e.g., If he were here/Were he with us, he would
certainly help us/ out of the difficulty.

If I had got/Had I got the money, there
would be hardly any problem.

If you could speak to him/Could you speak
to him today, it would be much more convenient.

If you should find him/Should you find him
in a better mood, he might accept your
proposal.

If a notional verb is present in the conditional clause, the inversion can be operated, on condition we replace or supplement that by an anomalous finite:

e.g., If you came with us/Should/Could you come
with us/Were you to come with us, it
would be simply splendid.

If he arrived now/Should/ (much less frequently) Did he arrive now, things could still be mended.

Note 1:Of course, in introducing these anomalous finites we have to reckon with their possible modal implications: should, could, were to, etc. preserve their improbable, suppositional, doubtful tinge.

Note 2:Negative (contracted) forms are rather infrequent in this case - possibly also because negative conditions are usually expressed with the help of the conjunction "unless".

2.1.4.3. (c) In clauses of unreal condition referring to the past - "unreal and impossible" the inversion can be made at all times, because the anomalous finite had is always present:

e.g., If you had spoken to him/Had you spoken to him, we shouldn't have been in such a difficult position.

If you had not/Had you not/Hadn't you neglected your readings so sorely, you would have been better prepared for conversation in society.

If there had been any doubt about it/Had there been any doubt whatever, I should have been the first to protest.

2.2 Very frequent cases of inversion are provided by interrogative and interrogative-negative sentences - both general and special questions :

e.g., Is / Isn't he in agreement with it ?
Was / Wasn't she there ?
Had / Hadn't she spoken to her mother about
it ?
Where was he ? / Where did/could you find
him ?
What would / wouldn't he do ?
When should / shouldn't I ring you up ?

2.2.1. General questions (discussed at greater length in the classification of sentences, according to content) have the structure described in the lecture on the order of words :

(A) The anomalous finite takes place 0, in front of the subject:

e.g. Will/Does/Can/May/Did/Would/Should he do it ?
Ought he to refuse? Might I help you ?

(B) The same applies to interrogative-negative sentences, yet with differences between the contracted ones (cf. examples above and below) and non-contracted ones.

If the general question is interrogative-negative, the contracted negative form of the anomalous finite precedes the subject:

e.g., Can't you understand ?
Won't you do it sooner ?
Isn't he going to come or not ?
Shouldn't we wait for the others ?
Haven't you already done your home work ?

(C) Naturally, in interrogative-negative sentences employed a little more formally (which is of rather rare

occurrence in conversation), acquiring a certain amount of emphasis - the negative particle not remains after the subject (that is preserving the most usual place of adverbs of manner in all kinds of sentences) :

e.g., What, have you not learnt ? (slightly emphatic, probably a teacher's question)

Why has he not brought me the money? (again slightly emphatic, perhaps with a note of irritation - anyhow expressing some modality, which explains the avoidance of the contracted form; yet a more common form would resort to one of the "implied negative words" : Why has he failed/did he fail to bring me the money ?)

John, are you not at all interested in this?
(The employment of the full form is justified by the presence of the phrase "at all").

Note 1: The uncontracted form "auxiliary + not" preceding the subject (e.g., "Have not you always hated him ?" Jane Austen) no longer appears in contemporary English.

Note 2: Even this case of inversion is ascribed by some linguists (who view the matter diachronically) to a certain amount of emphasis - probably the attempt of speakers of Old or Middle English to differentiate questions from statements.

Note 3: As stated above, when the subject is expressed by an interrogative pronoun, there is no need for

inversion, as it is a particular question, beginning with a word whose initial letters are wh- therefore a "wh - question".

(D) Interrogative sentences including the construction "there is / there are" - that is using the word "there" as an introductory subject, closely bound up with the verb "to be" which in such sentences has the value of a notional verb, expressing existence, state, etc. :

e.g., Is/Was there nobody here ?

Wasn't there any mistake in the text ?

Were / Weren't there many people there ?

Note : The last example definitely points to the fact that the first there in the sentence is not an adverb - like the second there. It is an introductory subject and therefore this could after all be included among the normal interrogative and interrogative sentences described under (A).

2.2.2. Special/Particular questions when the interrogative word is different from the subject of the sentence (if the latter itself is expressed by an interrogative word - that is an interrogative pronoun - naturally no inversion occurs) :

e.g., Where can I find him ?

When is your mother supposed to return ?

What could I tell your father ?

Why should she help you ?

Note 1 : The same applies quite naturally to interrogative-negative sentences :

e.g., Why couldn't you come yesterday ?

Why hadn't she rung you up before coming
to see you ?

Note 2 : As mentioned above, particular/special questions whose subject is expressed by the interrogative pronouns who, what (appearing less frequently, mainly in connection with the verbs to happen, to occur, etc.) and which (again infrequent, but appearing not unusually in the form which of them, which of you, etc.) do not resort to inversion :
e.g., What happens/What is happening here ?

What occurred to him ?

Who goes there ?

Who is willing to join me ?

Which (of them) is preferable ?

Which (of you) is younger ?

Note 3 : Sentences of the types Got a match ? or You speak German ? - in which the elision of an element gives the impression of an affirmative sentence or leads to lack of clarity are instances of elipsis of one or two elements : (Have you) got a match/light ? ; (Do) you speak German - typical of conversation.

2.3. Imperative sentences in the first and third persons singular and plural which in Modern English are constructed with the auxiliary "to let" :

e.g., Let's/Let us go to town.

Let'em/Let them come !

Note: The full form occurs in conversation in free variation with the contracted form, though the latter

seems more frequent. In Shakespeare's English, was occasionally found an old form which omitted notional verb to go altogether :

e.g., Let's to England !

2.4. Exclamatory sentences expressing wishes (= urări; dorințe), urges, slogans, etc. - therefore including a synthetic or an analytic subjunctive (much contested, as is well known) :

e.g., Long live the Republic ! (considered by very few people to be a " special form of the Imperative", but in our opinion the specific form of the synthetic subjunctive I).

Long may you live! or

May you long live ! (occasionally interpreted as a "subjunctive equivalent", but in our opinion a form of the Analytic Subjunctive).

"May the lord take pity on him !" said the old lady.

Note : The verb may is sometimes replaced here by its modal synonym would : e.g., "Would he return home safely !".

3.0. STILYSTIC INVERSION

Generally speaking, it is one of the modalities - either intentional (such as emphasis) or unitentional (such as strong emotions) - that may give rise to cases of inversion. On the other hand in literary prose and in poetry all these cases should be considered intentional, mainly connected with throwing out into bold relief one word or another

that should become more effective by being given prominence (as shown in the chapter on Word Order, many instances of displacement of the fixed arrangement of words in Contemporary English are underlain by some modality if they are not warranted by the special rules of grammatical inversion).

3.1. Here are the main instances of stylistic inversion listed by grammar books (with the remark that the last two may be considered border-cases, - that is are liable to interpretation also as grammatical inversion) :

3.1.1. (A) Placing an adverbial modifier in initial position (although it is not normally entitled to it) is one of the relatively frequent cases of inversion :

e.g., At the bottom of it all lies his craving
for love.

Behind all these manoeuvres there must be
some moneyed man.

High above the city on a tall column stood
the statue of the Happy Prince (A famous
quotation from Wilde, with whom there
are quite a few inversions; as he is of-
ten considered a model of English style,
he provides a good grounding for justify-
ing stylistic inversion ; problems of
effective rhythm in prose can also be dis-
cussed in this connection).

3.1.2. (B) The direct object may appear at the be-
ginning of a sentence, for purposes of emphasis :

e.g., The book I liked; not so, the film. (A ty-
pical emphatic form with a certain degree

of currency in conversation, as a sort of "set-phrase").

Talent, Mr. Micawber has; money, Mr.

Micawber has not (A famous quotation from Dickens' David Copperfield, illustrative of the author's poignant art of using syntactical parallelism, as effective as chiasm in poetry).

Note: In conversation, this type of inversion may appear rather frequently in emotional exclamations :

e.g., Money, that's all he wants from me !

A horse, a kingdom for a horse ! (Quotation from Shakespeare's Richard III, in which the predicate - assumed to be "I should give" - would have occurred after the first direct object, naturally under the stress of strong emotion.)

3.1.3. (C) The presence of the direct object in front position is usual when it is expressed by a group of words including "many a ..." or "not a ..." :

e.g., Many a book have I consulted, without finding an answer to this question.

Many a conversation have I had with him, about it.

Not a little money have I given him off and on.

Not a few friends has he made among them.

Not a stone has he left unturned.

3.1.4. (D) The same applies to adverbial modifiers expressed similarly :

e.g., Many a time have I spoken to him about it.
Not a moment before had I noticed him enter the room.

Not a bit did I like his manner. (Although in the last two examples the position of the adverbial modifier is regular, emphasis is strongly felt).

3.1.5. (E) The predicative is occasionally placed at the head of a sentence for purposes of emphasis or effectiveness :

e.g., Cold was his welcome, cold were all the words he uttered.

Nice indeed she was, much nicer than her sister.

No wonder, then, he didn't enjoy your company (elliptical from "no wonder is there, then ,....")

Such was the situation, that I couldn't refuse him.

So difficult was my position, that I had no choice.

3.1.6. (F) Other adverbial modifiers (e.g. of place) may also take this emphatic position:

e.g., In so many places had I sought the dictionary, that I despaired of finding it.

Note: As it can be noticed from some examples under E and F, inversion occurs relatively often in resultative con-

structions (with emphasis on the cause, in order to justify the effect).

3.1.7. (G) Moreover, adverbial modifiers of place - in fact adverbs showing direction - may be placed at the head of the sentence, for purposes of emphasis, when its subject is a noun :

e.g., In came the boy and out I went.

Down went the window and up flew the pigeons.

- Note: 1) The first example shows that inversion is not made when the subject is expressed by a pronoun.
2) It is worth remarking that the verb to do is not employed separately as in other cases (Cf H, etc.)

3.1.8. (H) Negative, half-negative, restrictive adverbial modifiers may be placed at the head of the sentence, bringing about the inversion between the subject and the anomalous finite of the predicate.

Negative adverbs or adverbial phrases, either containing the negation (not only, etc.) or implying it (little, etc.) are frequently employed in this way :

e.g., Little did I expect to find him there.

Not till the last did he realize the situation.

Not only was the room below my expectation, but also the house as a whole impressed me badly.

- Note : This last construction should be used with much discretion when the ideas in the two clauses are (slightly) different, requiring different verbs :

e.g., Not only was the room small, but I didn't
like the landlady either.

3.1.9. (I) The negative adverb of frequency (indefinite time) never is very often used at the head of an exclamatory sentence, especially as a mark of impatience, indignation etc.:

e.g., Never have I seen the likes of it !

Never had he done such a thing (to me) before!

3.1.10. (J) The restrictive adverbs hardly and scarcely (correlated with the conjunction when) often introduce temporal clauses indicating previousness to a main clause (strangely enough introduced by correlative conjunction when) :

e.g., Hardly/Scarcely had she lit a cigarette,
when her mother came in.

Hardly/Scarcely had we sat down, when two
people caused us to leave those seats.

Scarcely/Hardly had he gone to sleep, when
the telephone rang.

Note 1 : As a matter of fact, hardly and scarcely can be used at the head of the sentence in their capacity of adverbs of manner, - also requiring inversion - sometimes in sentences of the type described under (H) :

e.g ., Hardly did I notice that the old man was lame.

Note 2 : As mentioned in the section on Temporal Clauses in the chapter devoted to the Sequence of Tenses, the pattern shown here (restrictive adverb + Past Per-

fect with inversion of the anomalous finite + correlative conjunction + Past Tense) is also taken by the adverbial phrase no sooner (with the correlative conjunction than in the main clause) :

e.g., No sooner had he started reading, than he was called in to dinner.

No sooner had John switched on the light, than he realized it was still too early to rise.

3.2. As mentioned in the introduction to this chapter, stylistic inversion may also be interpreted as a change or a set of changes in the normal arrangement of words, under the stress of some peculiar objective but mainly subjective circumstances: intention, emphasis, desire for contrast, strong emotion ("positive" or "negative") uncommon conditions, etc.

Usually, one distinguishes between the cases of inversion appearing in familiar English (mainly in conversation but also in private letters, etc.) and the kind of refined, emphatic, effective style, peculiar to masters of English prose (to say nothing of the cases of inversion occurring more or less frequently in poetry - and therefore included in the general term of "poetic licences"). Nevertheless, even though such a distinction holds good in many cases, and even though the reasons may be the same, (epitomized in the notion of "effectiveness") the situations may differ widely.

We can group the comments on various cases of stylistic inversion as follows :

3.2.1. Emphasis on any part of the sentence except the subject (whose underlining can be obtained through the means described in various places - particularly the introductory emphatic it construction) :

e.g., Farther and farther into the forest he went.
Off they went like a thunderbolt.
On and on she read, without finding any encouraging word.

3.2.2. Of course, any part of the sentence may stand first in order to achieve prominence :

e.g., On the answer to this question depends entirely every decision concerning the goodness or badness of conduct. (Herbert Spencer)

Never had his policy been more triumphantly vindicated.

Nowhere is this so noticeable as in the hilly region.

In no case can such an attitude be justified merely by success.

3.2.3. Fowler (The King's English, 1958, pages 120 sqq) quotes examples of alternative sentences in which the solution including inversion is preferred precisely for the sake of emphasis :

e.g., He was quick-tempered : so are most Irishmen.
instead of:

He was quick-tempered as are most Irishmen.
Several difficulties now arose: among them
was his not being of age.

instead of:

Several difficulties now arose, among which was his not being of age.

3.2.4. The same applies to exclamatory or half-exclamatory sentences :

e.g., Bitterly did I regret the perverse, superstitious folly that has induced me to neglect so obvious a precaution. But in these later times, with so many disillusiones, with fresh problems confronting science as it advances, rare must be the spirit of faith which Haeckes regards his work (The Times.)

Note: Fowler insists that "exclamatory inversion, like everything else that is exclamatory, should of course be used sparingly."

3.2.5. Fowler considers that there are the following familiar and legitimate types of what he calls "balance inversion" that is inversion required for the stylistic purpose of balancing a sentence, rendering it more symmetrical. Here are a few examples (from Fowler as well as from other sources):

e.g., First on our list stands the question of local option.

To this cause may be attributed the decline in sales.

Among the guests were Mr. and Mrs Johnson,... etc.

Present were the chairman of the council, its executive secretary and several prominent members.

As one can notice, the real subjects of the last two sentences actually occupy the last place in the order of words, the first being taken by a prepositional object or by the predicative. The reason is explained by several grammar books : leaving these elements at the end, would have made the sentence imbalanced, lop-sided.

3.3.1. As regards the inversion occasionally appearing in literary or other publications after somebody's speech, to mark the person quoted, it seems that high-brow English people make the same mistake as foreigners do : they introduce the inversion for such verbs as to suggest, to inquire, etc. while in fact only the verb to say is frequently employed in this way nowadays, - especially when the subject is a personal pronoun - to answer being relatively well accepted whatever the way of expressing the subject.

(In obsolete or archaic English the verb quoth was also employed - with this invariable form, and only in the third and first persons singular: "Quoth the raven, 'nevermore'".)

3.3.2. In spite of criticism from grammarians and other linguists, journalists and other people occasionally resort to inversion with the verb to say at the beginning of a sentence or paragraph, mainly for the sake of vividness, it seems :

e.g., Said a friend to me the other day, "I should like to be able to run well across country."

Said the Japanese Minister yesterday evening : "...."

Examples such as : "Comes a new translation... in

four volumes" are criticized as stilted.

3.4. This takes us to the problem of unnecessary, false or mistaken inversion, of which examples abound not only with foreign speakers of English but also with English and American journalists and other authors, as it results from books of usage :

e.g., But he has performed as have few, if any, in offices, like this.

(the construction is neither clear nor very correct and Fowler recommends its reformulation as follows: "But he has performed his office as few have performed it").

Relishing humour more than does any other people, the Americans could not be seriously angry.

(the verb do is better omitted in this case).
If France remains as firm as did England at that time, she will probably have as much reason as had England to congratulate herself - (The Times).

(The two cases of inversion are rather unnecessary).

Still more when considered in the concrete than when considered in the abstract do the views of Hobbes and his disciples proved to be inconsistent. (Herbert Spencer).

(The inversion is unnecessary and does not contribute to the clarity of the passage).

3.5. By way of a conclusion about stylistic inversion, we shall again resort to such an authority on usage as Fowler :

He notices that all types of inversion used by modern writers existed in older English too.

On the other hand he insists that "exclamatory inversion, like everything else that is exclamatory, should be used sparingly," and adds : "Before using inversion, therefore, the novice should ask himself two questions : is there any solid, practical reason (ornamental reasons will not do) for tampering with the normal order of subject and verb ? and does the inversion sound natural ?"

(H.W.Fowler and F.G.Fowler,

The King's English, Oxford University Press, 1958, page 190).

4.0. As mentioned before, certain cases of inversion are more difficult to classify, since they are more or less on the border between grammatical and stylistic, being due mainly to usage. That is why we have grouped them under the heading : traditional and other cases of inversion.

4.1. For instance, regarding the post-position of adjectives, there are two main situations :

4.1.1. (A) A few adjectives such as present or proper can be placed either in ante-position or in post-position, with different meanings:

e.g., The teachers present (at the meeting) insisted that the present students should work more than those of a decade ago.

(In the first case present meant those

who were present, while in the latter case it meant current, of our days, of the present time)

Note: Nevertheless, one of John Osborne's plays is entitled Time Present - probably in imitation of the elliptical form of stage directions, which often express like this the time of the action.

From the terrace we went into the house proper (= casa propriu zisă), which is indeed the proper house (= casa potrivită) for your family to live in.

4.1.2. (B) A number of adjectives - all of them of Latin/French origin and the most part belonging to the official, political or diplomatic vocabulary - are often post-posit to nouns, forming with them fixed combinations and even a few compound nouns : ambassador (s) extraordinary, attorney (s) general (= "avocat general al statului, procuror general; ministerul public"), the body politic (= "statul, națiunea", in the history of England); court(s) martial; governor(s) general; knight(s) errant; malice prepense (= "premeditare", in legal terminology); minister(s) plenipotentiary ; poet(s) laureate; postmaster(s) general (= "directorul/ministrul poștelor"); sum(s) total (= "totaluri, sume totale"); from time(s) immemorial (= "din vremuri străvechi").

Moreover, there are :

(a) Adjectives which either take their normal place in ante-position, or are post-posit, not forming fixed combinations : general secretary - secretary general.

(b) Adjectives which, when post-positd remind one of the condition of past participles which seem to be placed after the noun that they modify or determine, through the reduction of an attributive clause : e.g., The documents extant from The documents which are / were extant.

4.2. The position of the word enough often misleads people. It has to be judged in both morphological and syntactical terms: as an adjective, enough takes the place usual for adjectives - preceding the noun they modify and determine:

e.g., Have you got enough time/money/cigarettes/books, etc.?

On the other hand, enough is an example of poly-functionalism giving rise to difficulties: it may also be an adverb (generally characterized as an adverb of degree/quantity/measure) and therefore its place in the sentence could be freer. As a rule, however, it is placed, after the adjective and adverb it determines:

e.g., The programme is long/short/interesting/entertaining enough.

John speaks fluently/fast/rapidly/intelligibly enough.

4.3. Prepositions may remain at the end of a sentence/clause - or anyhow be removed from the noun/pronoun which they ought to precede - in the following two situations, which brings them a certain amount of prominence, supported also by their pronunciation with their strong form (though they do not acquire sentence stress) :

4.3.1. (A) When they are connected to the relative pronouns whom, who (in colloquial English), which or that, and the latter are omitted :

e.g., He is the man you should have spoken to
(= the man to whom you should have spoken).

This is the book he was referring to (= to which he was referring).

Here is the address (that) you should send your letters to (= the address to which you should send your letters).

This is the club I patronize and that is the one I never go to (= to which I never go).

4.3.2. (B) In colloquial interrogative sentences headed by an interrogative pronoun (normally in the accusative) - whom, what, which or who :

e.g., Whom/(colloquial) Who were you talking with / to ?

What is he leading us to ?

What are you driving at ? (= "ce vrei să insinuezi? / Unde vrei să bați/ajungi?")

Which of the sisters are you thinking of ?

What are you actually talking about ?

Note : The preposition usually preserves this final position if the sentence is changed into a direct object clause :

e.g., Do you understand what he is driving at ?

Do you realize what you are actually talking about ?

I don't know which of the sisters he was dreaming of.

C XV. THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

1.0. As we saw in the classification of sentences (in point of structure (Lecture II , section 2), the compound sentence is the equivalent of what Romanian and other grammarians call "frază (compusă) prin coordonare", because in the arrangement of the two or more clauses within the sentence we cannot distinguish a clear hierarchy or stratification. This structure is employed when people express one or several logical/syntactical units which in the speaker's/writer's mind are of equal importance, being complementary or balanced even when they differ more or less substantially (for instance in an adversative relation).

1.1. Coordination - that is the arrangement or placing of thought/syntactical units on the same plane - is also of several kinds :

1.1.1. from the point of view of the way the coordination is expressed, we find that in most cases it is achieved by means of coordinating conjunctions, but on the other hand the conjunction is not repeated in case of identity and sometimes may be absent altogether, if unnecessary. While the first type is naturally called coordination through conjunctions or conjunctive coordination the latter is called "asyndetic coordination" or "coordination through juxta-

position" (= coordonare prin juxtapunere) ;

e.g., The world below had vanished in the dark, the
lighted cabin was full of living men.

1.1.2. from the point of view of the logical/syntactical
relations between the clauses forming a compound sentence,
coordination can be subdivided - very much as in Romanian -
into :

A.- copulative (that is based on addition) mainly
through and ; neither ... nor; not only ... but
also; as well as; together with.

e.g., Neither he nor his sister would go.

He did ~~not~~ speak to me, nor did he greet me.

Not only he but also she must go.

B. disjunctive coordination that is based on
distinction, namely through (either ...) or, (or) else,
otherwise.

e.g., (Either) he or his brother is to blame.

He must do it (or) else/otherwise he might
fall ill.

C. adversative coordination (based on opposition)
achieved mainly through conjunctions as but, nevertheless,
yet, still, nonetheless, only (that), while, whereas.
(In order to avoid mistakes of interpretation cf. the
concessive clause and the concessive conjunctions introduc-
ing it - in the section on subordination, as part of the
complex sentence).

e.g., We sometimes quarrel, yet/still/nevertheless/
but on the whole we are the best of friends

(Here the concessive implications can be made explicit by moving the conjunction at the head of the first clause, thus rendering it subordinate: "Although we sometimes quarrel, we are the best of friends").

While he works hard, he doesn't achieve much.

It is not very new, nonetheless/nevertheless/
yet/still I like it very much.

The face of Tess flushed slightly, but still
she did not pause. (Th. Hardy)

D. - causative-consecutive coordination (in fact corresponding to "coordonarea concluzivă" in Romanian grammar) in which a slight relation between cause and effect can be detected, although it is not so strong as to acquire the determinative relation that is established in subordination (as part of a complex sentence) between the adverbial clause of reason and the main clause, or between the main clause and the adverbial clause of result (cf. the lecture on the Complex sentence, sections 2.14. and 2.15.). It is achieved mainly with the help of the adverbs (or conjunctions) Therefore, thus, then, so, hence, consequently, accordingly (mostly sounding resultative) and of the conjunction for (causative, but not felt as strong as its subordinating counterparts because, as, since).

e.g., He is our organizer, so/then/therefore/
consequently he should have come first.
He sleeps very little so/consequently/
(obsolete) hence/thus he is always exhausted.
He speaks little, accordingly/thus/therefore
he is considered a philosopher.

NOTE: As to the distinction between subordination and coordination in this case the criterion proposed is the possibility for presentation: if we can separate the two clauses of the second example by a full stop, they are coordinated:

"He sleeps very little. Therefore he is exhausted."

On the other hand,

"He has no money because he doesn't work."

cannot be divided by a full stop (or at least not within the speech of one and the same person).

D. XVI THE SYNTAX OF THE COMPLEX SENTENCE - TYPES
OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

o.1. In keeping with the definition given in lecture II, section 2.3 (C), in English a complex sentence is made up of at least one main/principal clause and at least one secondary/subordinate clause.

o.2. In fact the situation offers a much greater diversity because as often as not we meet several subordinate clauses of various kinds, linked to the same main clause. (The case of several main clauses being present in the same complex sentence, may be considered a compound-complex sentence - cf. the above-mentioned lecture, under 2.4).

If these subordinate clauses are of the same kind - or if two or several of them discharge the same function or have the same position in relation to the main clause, it means that we are confronted with coordination at the second level, which forms what has already been called a complex — compound sentence (cf. ibidem).

o.3. Moreover, it sometimes happens - particularly in indirect speech - that a complex sentence displays three levels - that is we can distinguish a hierarchy of subordination in the following way : a main clause is followed by a subordinate clause (for instance a direct object clause) which in its turn has another subordinate clause attached to

it (for instance, a conditional or a temporal clause).

e.g., He said (that) he would go to the mountains next week if it didn't rain/when he hoped he would have more time/because he was extremely tired/so that he might finish his translation, etc.

In these examples we easily realize that the clause He said is the main one, that subordinated to it is first of all the clause he would go to the mountains (clearly a direct object clause), while the latter is followed by one or two of the other clauses subordinated to it (conditional, temporal, causal, final, etc.) which therefore take the third rank/level in the hierarchy.

Presumably, but in fact also as a reality of rare frequency, the subordination may go even further, with a fourth or perhaps a fifth level being conceivable.

e.g., She said she would go for a walk as soon as she finished reading the book which she had borrowed from a friend after the latter had written a paper on it. (This may however lead to a prolix style).

o.4. Whatever the number of levels of subordination beyond the basic model of the complex sentence (main - secondary) the hierarchy typically includes a middle term/element - that is a clause which on the one hand is subordinated to the main clause and on the other hand governs

another clause or other clauses. This middle /intermediate clause is called regent clause in the grammar of several languages. As far as English grammar is concerned, its importance is limited to the changes required by the sequence of tenses in certain types of clauses - that is the changes occurring in the clauses subordinated to the regent clause (as if it were a genuine principal clause) if it includes a verb in one of the past tenses.

TYPES OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

1.0.1. From the point of view of the levels of subordination, we are only interested in the distinction between governing clauses (principal or regent) and governed clauses (subordinated either to the principal clause or to a regent one).

1.0.2. There is, however, another and much more important classification of subordinate clauses based not so much on a formal/grammatical criterion of position occupied as part of the complex sentence, but rather on a semantic - grammatical criterion, that of the essence/content of the relation(s) expressed by these clauses.

This is the classification which distinguishes clauses from the point of view of their semantic — grammatical role towards the predicate or towards other parts of the sentence.

As a matter of fact we could say that as part of a model (more or less like a pyramid) of the means of expression, we can distinguish three levels - more or less from the point of view of the extension given to each element in a judgment /

proposition/sentence :

Morphologically we find nouns, adjectives, articles, etc. as well as verbs, adverbs, etc.

In syntax, at the level of the simple sentence, these elements turn mostly into the same type of parts of the sentence, that is typically an article or an adjective or a numeral turns into an attribute, a noun turns into a subject or a direct object, a verb turns into the predicate or into a part of it, an adverb becomes an adverbial modifier of some kind, etc.

At the syntactical level of the complex sentence, these elements of the simple extended sentence may be developed into various subordinate clauses, that is groups of words including a predicate which, however, discharge the function of the subject, attribute, predicative, of an object, of one of the many types of adverbial modifiers.

1.0.3. To put it differently, as part of grammatical synonymy in syntax, there is the possibility of filling the same place and role in a sentence by one word (adverb, etc.), by a phrase (adverbial phrase, etc.) or by a clause (adverbial clause, etc.) - all this depending upon the speaker's / writer's will, intention, possibilities or upon necessities of expression.

1.0.4. Thus, the list of types of subordinate clauses will include roughly the same elements and terminology as that describing the parts of the simple sentence (with certain

variations or fluctuations, mainly as regards adverbial clauses which evince certain differences from adverbial modifiers).

1.1. Therefore, the classification of subordinate clauses is in our opinion as follows :

1. subject clauses
2. predicate/predicative clauses
3. direct object clauses
4. indirect object clauses (rare)
5. prepositional object clauses (rare)
6. attributive clauses, subdivided into defining and non-defining

Adverbial clauses, subdivided as follows :

7. adverbial clauses of manner (modal clauses)
8. adverbial clauses of place (locative or directional clauses)
9. adverbial clauses of time (temporal clauses - with a possible distinction between definite and indefinite/frequency)
10. adverbial clauses of comparison (comparative clauses - included by many people among those of manner)
11. adverbial clauses of concession (concessive clauses)
12. adverbial clauses of comparison and concession (comparative-concessive clauses - again not always discriminated from those of manner)
13. adverbial clauses of condition (conditional clauses)

14. adverbial clauses of reason/cause (causal/
causative clauses)
15. adverbial clauses of result (consecutive clauses)
16. adverbial clauses of purpose (final clauses)
- 1.1.1. Some grammarians also distinguish :
 17. the introductory emphatic clauses (which
correspond to the introductory emphatic
construction described in the lecture on the
subject)
 18. adverbial clauses of relation
 19. adverbial clauses of degree, measure, quantity
and approximation (again a peculiar case of the
adverbial clause of manner)
 20. adverbial clauses of exception

2.1. Subject clauses discharge the same role in the complex sentence as that of a subject in a simple sentence or in a clause of any type. So, what we said in the lecture on the subject regarding the various means of expressing it - mentioning among them a clause - can be interpreted in terms of grammatical synonymy as an alternative possibility, in which the group of words discharging the function of the subject includes also a verb in a predicative/finite mood.

e.g., What you told me yesterday has not yet been confirmed.

(the equivalent of the simple subject your assertion/your information, etc. or of the subject + attributive clause the information which you gave me yesterday/you passed on/

you communicated to me yesterday, etc.)

What he did is what ever body does.

(this is a typical case of symmetry in the arrangement of the subject clause and of the predicative clause around a linking/copulative verb, sometimes a source of ambiguity which we can solve in keeping with what was said in the lecture on the subject, by distinguishing between the anaphoric/known element and the epiphoric/novel element of the communication).

2.1.1. Subject clauses are introduced by conjunctions, by pronouns and - much more rarely - asyndetically.

2.1.1.1. The conjunctions frequently introducing subject clauses are : that, if and especially whether.

e.g., That he is a good student is known to everybody.

If I agree with you is quite another matter.

Whether he will come (or not) is doubtful.

If and whether are synonymous, but the latter is preferred in all kinds of clauses (except the conditional ones where it cannot appear) especially when a negative alternative is shown or implied.

2.1.1.2. Subject clauses are introduced frequently enough by the pronouns who, which, what and their more general (or selective) correspondents whoever, whichever, whatever.

e.g., Who will do the job is still a question/is still doubtful/has not yet been decided.

Whoever will do the job will realize how difficult it is.

Which (of them) will do the job best remains a mystery.

Whichever is good for you is at your disposal.

What he says is perfectly true.

Whatever he will say is all right for me.

What(ever) was within reason has already been done.

2.1.1.3. The adverbs more frequently used to introduce subject clauses are: where, when, how, why (possibly also with their emphatic, generalizing or selective compounds with ever : wherever, whenever, however, whysoever) and whither. Incidentally, because these adverbs normally introduce adverbial clauses, of course people manifest certain doubts and uncertainty as regards the rules of the sequence of tenses which do not apply to subject clauses, as they do to temporal clauses.

e.g., When/Where/Why he will come is not yet known to us/is a great question mark/is still a subject for speculation, etc.

Where the book is at present still obsesses me.

Where/whither I should go first puzzles me.

Wherever/Whenever/Wheresoever/Whither/Why (soever)/Where you will go doesn't concern me in the least.

2.1.1.4. While asyndetical connection is a rather infrequent occurrence in English compound as well as complex sentences, sometimes we do find subject clauses introduced asyndetically/by mere juxtaposition - provided the punctuation

makes the syntactical role of the clause quite clear :

e.g., "Come to see me" is what he told me on his departure/on the telephone, etc.

"Never dare you touch me again" was the meaning of that scowl.

2.2. Predicative clauses discharge the same function in complex sentences as that of the predicative (="nume predicativ" in Romanian, therefore a noun or an adjective, more rarely a pronoun) as part of a simple sentence or a clause of any type.

2.2.1. Having the same formal characteristics as subject clauses, predicative clauses usually share the latter's structure, as well as the elements that can introduce them (cf. 2.1.1).

e.g., That is what we agreed upon.

The important thing now is what he will say in this respect.

The difficulty is where/when we shall find him.

The person to blame/The guilty one is whoever left the window open.

My best choice will be whatever I can find in his library.

My hesitation lies in/My hesitation is whether to buy it (or not) (again whether is preferred to if in non-conditional clauses).

The truth is I have never heard that name before

(asyndetic connection, the conjunction that is frequently omitted).

2.3. Direct object clauses discharge a role similar to that of the direct object in simple extended sentences or in any type of clause, being in fact an extension of the group of words which can normally express a direct object, or the explicit form (common to many languages) of the implicit form called "complex object" specific to English (cf. the lecture on the Direct Object).

2.3.1. Given their function and structure, so closely connected with that of other nominal clauses - of which the subject clause is the prototype - direct object clauses may be introduced in practically the same ways as subject clauses.

e.g., I don't know where/when/why/how he will go.

I don't know at all which (of them)/who/what he is.

I doubt whether he knows the answer (or not).

(Though the form I doubt if he knows the answer may be frequent enough).

I saw that he came (Easily contracted to I saw him come).

Who knows what(ever) happens there ?

He said (that) he was coming.

2.3.2. Many of the direct object clauses render indirect questions, that is they form the reflection in indirect/reported speech of questions proper (either general

or special) in direct speech :

e.g., He asked me if I agreed (from He asked(me)"Do you agree ?")

He asked me what I was reading. (This represents the reported form of : He asked(me): "What are you reading ?").

2.3.2.1. It is easy to notice and to understand that among the changes required by the transition to indirect/ reported speech there are some affecting punctuation, others affecting the tense of the verb, the person of the pronoun and some connected with the order of words (cf. the respective lecture).

e.g., The teacher asked us : "When was Shakespeare born ?"

The same special question rendered indirectly normally turns into : The teacher asked us when Shakespeare was born/ had been born, without a question mark and without the partial or total inversion characteristic of interrogative sentence (cf. the respective section of the lecture on word order). It is easy to realize that there is no occasion for applying the grammatical inversion specific to questions because the reported sentence is no longer interrogative.

2.3.2.2. The same source for hesitation, confusions and mistakes is offered by general questions :

e.g., He asked me : "Are you coming or not ?" which turns into :

He asked me whether I was coming or not. (Still, there are fewer mistakes made in this case).

2.3.2.3. Practice shows that mistakes generated by overlooking the distinction between questions proper (with inversion) and reported questions (not requiring inversion because they have turned into direct object clauses) are also frequent in connection with sentences of the following type :

e.g., The teacher asked us : "Who knows where the solution is/lies ?"

This sentence should be reproduced/reported in the following way :

The teacher asked (us) which of us/who knew where the solution was/lay. (Two degrees of subordination).

2.3.2.4. There are also direct object clauses embodying indirect questions which need not be ascribed to questions proper :

I/He/She was wondering whether they would accept.
(Hypothetically, they may derive from : I, etc. asked myself/
I wondered : "Will they accept ?")

2.4. Indirect object clauses are the extension on the plane of the complex sentence of an indirect object in a simple extended sentence.

The frequency of such clauses is very small, all the more so as in English grammar an indirect object primarily refers to a person (therefore expressed by a noun, a proper name or a personal pronoun) and to a much smaller extent by

objects or abstract notions.

e.g., Give the money to whoever needs it/to whom you will think fit.

He gave the wrong interpretation to what(ever) I had said.

Give another wording to what you mean (to say).

She lends another colouring to what(ever) I say.

2.5. Prepositional object clauses - (also infrequent for the reason stated under 2.4) - discharge the same functions as prepositional objects in simple sentences or various types of clauses, therefore occurring after a number of prepositions and being subject to the same subdivisions (of association, of agent, of means, of relation, etc.)

e.g., Think of what you are doing.

Don't wait for what she will do.

Don't place too much confidences in whoever flatters you.

They all laughed at what I was doing/at what she said.

I am looking forward to what you will tell me.

2.6. Attributive clauses are a very common type of subordinate clause, being in fact one of the usual ways of expressing the attribute. They are often called relative attributive clauses, and the distinction is made in grammar (particularly in English, for reasons stated further on) between those which are essential to the meaning of the

sentence (because they help identifying the subject or another part of the sentence) and those which merely add some information (not indispensable, though of various degrees of importance), about the subject or another part of the sentence

A. Defining/restrictive/limiting relative attributive clauses are indispensable to the meaning of the subject or of another nominal element in the sentence and therefore cannot be omitted without losing the clarity or the point of the sentence :

e.g., My brother who/that is at Buzău is older than my brother who/that lives in Craiova (the omission of any of the two defining/restrictive relative clauses would cancel the possibility to identify the brothers, to distinguish between them).

B. Non-defining/descriptive/amplifying relative attributive clauses, usually placed between commas or dashes, are therefore parenthetical in meaning, punctuation and intonation, as the information which they convey - however interesting it may be - is not indispensable for identification, etc.:

e.g., My brother, who is at Buzău, wrote to me that he was coming to Bucharest. (It is easily noticed that there is no need for identification since the speaker has only got one brother, and so the attributive clause is used just for the

sake of an explanation and could have been placed between brackets or could have been omitted without any essential loss for the meaning and trend of the sentence as a whole.

Let us analyse the two types of relative attributive clauses also in purely syntactical terms :

2.6.1. The defining/restrictive relative attributive clauses are introduced by (a) relative pronouns ; (b) adverbs ; (c) asyndetically.

2.6.1.1. (a) The relative pronouns employed are : who, (for persons and personifications), which (for non-personified animals, abstract notions and for replacing sentences and clauses - in non-defining clauses, cf.2.6.2.1), that (for persons, things or abstract notions but never in order to replace whole sentences or clauses), but (used like that and similarly in both nominative and accusative, but rarely enough) such as, the same as, as (nowadays only in substandard English)

e.g., The knowledge of what had happened was very important.

He laughs best who laughs last.

He goes far that never turns.

That is the house which/that I would like to live in.

There is hardly a man in our department but knows him. (= "nu mai e nici un om la noi in sectie care să nu-l cunoască")

There is hardly a book in the library but he has read (it) (= "aproape că nu e carte în bibliotecă pe care să n-o fi citit"; the form without the final pronoun it is preferred, as being more grammatical).

There are such people as have never read Shakespeare.

He gave me the same answer as he had given the day before.

x It's father as calls me Sissy (Dickens, Hard Times) (Correct contemporary usage employs the pronoun that or who in the introductory emphatic construction "it is ... that/who").

NOTE : The pronoun what is used as a relative only in bad English when unaccompanied by a preposition (e.g. ^xThis is the man/book what I saw yesterday), so we must beware of it (except when preceded by prepositions - e.g., the attributive clause is : The discussion about what we should do led nowhere)

2.6.1.2. (b) the adverbs employed to introduce defining relative clauses are where, when, how, etc.

e.g., The place where he works is unknown to us.

The day when he will come to Bucharest we shall celebrate the event. (Notice that no constraint of the sequence of tenses is imposed upon attributive clauses).

2.6.1.3. (c) in conversational English, many such

clauses are introduced asyndetically - which can be interpreted as an ellipsis of the relative pronoun - either nominative (who, which, that) or accusative (whom, that, which)

e.g., The man I knew no longer works there.

The house I liked has already been sold to somebody else/has been bought by somebody else.

The concert I enjoyed most was conducted by Barbirolli.

2.6.1.4. (d) defining relative clauses may also be condensed through ellipsis (or contracted) to the form of an adjective or of a past or indefinite participle. The original complete form may be easily recreated at will, though the condensed/contracted form may appear in any style whatever, including the official one :

For instance, the very usual phrase "For all parties concerned" which has a similar Romanian equivalent, may be considered as a condensed form "For all (those) parties who are concerned".

Further examples :

The book read by him = The book which was/which had been read by him.

The problem/issue raised by them = the problem which/that was/had been raised by them.

NOTE : The same may apply to the interpretation of other kinds of attributes :

e.g., The man (who is) standing by the door ...

The man (who came) from London ...

The exhibition (which is) to open tomorrow, etc.

2.6.2. The non-defining/descriptive/amplifying relative attributive clauses - whose role is to introduce into the message some supplementary, parenthetical information about the subject or another noun in the sentence - therefore have a rather loose connection with that noun, or anyhow cannot be considered to be a closely bound up with it as a defining/ indispensable relative clause.

This explains why from the syntactical point of view they should only be introduced syndetically (except when they are true parentheses -cf. the lecture on Independent elements) and the explanation or details offered by them are placed between commas (between dashes if their incidental nature warrants the application of the rules for that kind of punctuation). In oral delivery they are usually preceded by a pause, after which comes a drop to the bottom of one's voice, their intonation being flat (and monotonous) since it employs the Low Level Tone (one of the two non-kinetic/non-nuclear tones) without the normal/significant relief. All this points to their sometimes redundant nature which, however, is not always easy to perceive either by the speaker (who is not "grammatically conscious" of their nature) or by the listener, who naturally realizes their status (without, however, becoming on the spot "grammatically conscious" of their position in the hierarchy).

2.6.2.1 In English, there is a certain difference

(marked enough to generate mistakes) in the elements introducing this other kind of relative clauses : while the adverbs introducing them are the same as those introducing the defining relative clauses, among the relative pronouns, that is never used.

To be more specific, such clauses are introduced by :

a) the pronouns who (for persons and personifications of all kinds), whom (idem), whose (for the genitive of beings but possibly also of things - for purpose of brevity) and which (for non-personified things, animals and abstract notions, as well as for replacing clauses or sentences).

e.g., My sister, who doesn't like Brahms, left in the middle of the concert (Notice a certain causative nuance of the relative clause - which, however, appears as a complementary explanation, without being indispensable for the identification of the person : first of all it is quite clear that there is one sister and secondly the dislike of Brahms cannot be considered a defining element).

N.B.- The pronoun that, instead of who, would be incorrect.

The buses, which had been waiting for the traffic lights to change, were full up. (The relative clause has practically no connection with the meaning of the main clause, it is entirely incidental).

His assertion - which he will certainly regret some

day - was probably made under his wife's influence.

(Notice again the freedom from the constraints of sequence of tenses).

He missed the train, which annoyed him very much.

(= the fact that he had missed the train annoyed him very much = "ceea ce", replacing the whole idea, the exclusive province of the relative pronoun which)

He sent the letter by air-mail, which saved a lot of time.

2.6.2.2. If we analyse these examples, we notice that the relevance of the information for the main clause, or for the message in general, varies greatly, but never approaches the level of being indispensable.

That is why it is usually considered that they may be omitted, since they are parenthetical, incidental or even redundant.

2.6.2.3. Notice that it would be impossible in correct English to replace any of the pronouns introducing the non-defining clauses by the pronoun that.

NOTE : As a matter of fact, considering that at the normal speed of speaking or writing it is extremely difficult for a foreigner (who does not think directly in English) to distinguish between the two main types of attribute clauses, it may be thought advisable for non-natives to avoid the use of that as a relative pronoun. True enough, this runs counter

to contemporary British usage as natives very much favour the pronoun that in defining clauses - but that is rather unsafe for foreigners. (The argument that it is easier to use one pronoun for animates, inanimates, etc. is irrelevant, all the more so as the pronoun that can never replace clauses or sentences - i.e. complete ideas).

2.6.3. Another type of attributive clauses is the appositive attributive clause, which conveys more or less essential information, or rather constitutes the semantically important part of the subject group, etc., being often appended to a non-significant, semantically irrelevant noun, such as fact, news, place, etc. (cf. the reality that vague nouns, "of wide denotation", forfeit the sentence stress to which nouns are usually entitled).

Appositive attributive clauses are not separated by commas, from the noun they explain or amplify or clarify (and which would have very little meaning without them), or from the rest of the sentence :

e.g., The fact that he knows me to be his friend has always kept us close together.

The news that she had become a champion spread very quickly.

Everybody listened eagerly to the explanation of how the accident had been avoided.

In all these examples the semantic force/value/content of the head-noun lay rather in its attribute - i.e. the appositive attributive clause.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

2.7. Adverbial clauses of manner (proper) are the equivalent on the plane of the complex sentence of what adverbial modifiers of manner (proper) are on the level of the simple extended sentence. They show the way in which the subject performs the action. They are sometimes called modal (adverbial) clauses. Clauses showing comparison and the combination of comparison-concession are discussed under 2.10 and 2.12, respectively.

Adverbial clauses of manner proper are introduced by the conjunction as, by the relative adverb how and by the compound conjunction in what manner :

e.g., Do as you are told.

Do it how you can/in what manner you can.

They strove to do it in what manner they could/
as (best) they could.

NOTE : Further phrases - sometimes elliptical - and conjunctions may also appear in adverbial clauses of manner proper :

I attempted to do as well as I could (interpreted by some grammarians as adverbial clause of comparison).

You do it the way you want (in fact : in the way you want it - with the risk of being considered an attributive clause though this seems hardly logical -) and I will do it the way I can/as I can (do it)/to the best of my ability (the last being an adverbial phrase, not a clause).

2.8. Adverbial clauses of place (sometimes called locative or subdivided into locative and directional) show the place where the action is performed, the direction of the action performed by the verb, the location of the subject whose state is indicated, etc. - like the corresponding adverbial modifiers on the plane of the simple extended sentence.

Adverbial clauses of place are introduced by the (relative) adverbs where, wherever, everywhere (possibly followed by that) - therefore adverbs interpreted as connectives (consequently not entitled to sentence stress).

e.g., I shall go where/wherever/wheresoever (emphatic)/
whither I like.

You will find this phenomenon wherever/
everywhere you go.

Everywhere (that)/when/wheresoever (emphatic) I
looked I saw the same smiling faces.

NOTE : In a broader interpretation it may be assumed that these are "relative clauses with/without antecedent used as adverbial modifiers" - that is appended to a hypothetical noun place, etc. - to any place where I like, etc.

2.9. Adverbial clauses of time discharge the same functions as the adverbial modifiers of time at the level of the simple extended sentence and therefore may be subdivided on the basis of the distinction definite time - indefinite time and frequency. However, this distinction is much less relevant at the level of the complex sentence (where the problem of word order does not arise) except as regards the

use of tenses, which has to rely on this distinction (the preterite or past tense, the past perfect and the future mainly in the clauses of definite time), the present and the present perfect (mainly in clauses of indefinite time).

Adverbial clauses of time are introduced by many connective adverbs or conjunctions : when, whenever, while, as, till, until, as soon as, as long as, before, after, directly after, immediately after, directly (in American pronounced /'drekli /, since, now that (possibly with a causative interpretation).

e.g., Please come to me when/whenever you like/
while I am in Bucharest/as long as you are in
Bucharest/ before I leave for the provinces (on
Monday),/immediately after/directly (after) you
finish that meeting/as soon as you can, etc.
As soon as he came/as he had come home, he
started writing a letter.
I shall stay at home till/until my wife returns
from her office.
Now what (= acum că) he has/is gone, we may
resume our debate (a nuance close to an
adverbial clause of reason is easily perceptible)

2.9.1. Adverbial clauses of time also involve a pattern (corresponding to the Romanian model "nici nu apucam bine să mă așez la masă că a și venit un vecin", etc. in which, as a matter of fact it is fairly difficult to

distinguish the main clause from the temporal one. Generally speaking, if we support our analysis by a re-phrasing of the sentence, we can realize that the first clause is temporal, while the second is the principal one : "A venit un vecin imediat după ce mă așezasem/m-am așezat eu la masă". In English, the usual form is Hardly/Scarcely had I sat down to my dinner when a neighbour came = A neighbour came as soon as I had sat down to my dinner".

In fact, such sentences evince a pattern which we may summarize as follows :

First clause (Subordinate temporal ?)			Second clause (Main ?)		
<u>Hardly</u>	+ past perfect (with inversion)	+ ... (,) <u>when</u> + past tense + ...			
<u>Scarcely</u>	+ past perfect (with inversion)	+ ... (,) <u>when</u> + past tense + ...			
<u>No sooner</u>	+ past perfect (with inversion)	+ ... (,) <u>than</u> + past tense + ...			

N.B.- Since many mistakes are made in connection with this pattern - which is fairly common in English - one must remember its two basic forms, in one of which the restrictive adverbs hardly/scarcely are in free variation while employing the same correlative in the main clause (when). On the other hand many foreigners mistake the correlative than (of no sooner) for ^{*}then (presumably because it is an adverb of time)

of for the conjunction that (presumably under the influence of the conjunction "ca" in the typical Romanian pattern).

Here are a few more examples :

Hardly/Scarcely had he said that, when the door was flung open.

which can be re-phrased as :

No sooner had he said that, than the door was flung open.

No sooner had he entered the room, than the telephone rang.

(or Scarcely/Hardly had he entered the room when the telephone rang).

2.9.2. Besides this pattern, adverbial clauses of time are subject to many constraints as part of the set of rules called the sequence of tenses (cf. the respective lecture) which can be summarized as follows :

a) concomitance with the present tenses (present indefinite, present perfect, etc.) in the main clause is shown by the present in the temporal clause ; with the past tenses (past indefinite, past perfect or any tense including a past finite in it) it is indicated by the past indefinite in the temporal clause ; with the future (indefinite) it is expressed by the present indefinite in the temporal clause.

e.g. 1. He comes here when(ever) he likes.

2. He came here when(ever) he felt like it.

3. He will come here when(ever) he thinks fit to do so.

b) anteriority/priority/previousness to the present tenses in the main clause is indicated by the present perfect in the temporal clause (or the present itself in colloquial English, provided the time relation is clear enough), to a past tense in the main clause is expressed by the past perfect in the temporal clause, while priority to a future action can only be expressed by the present perfect in the temporal clause.

e.g., (1) I usually go to the library after I have taken/(colloquial) after I take my breakfast and a short walk.

(2) After he had (already) spoken to me on the telephone, we actually met three days ago

(3) I will (only) give you my answer after I have thought it over.

c) subsequence/ulteriority to the present in the main clause is naturally indicated by the future (future indefinite or near future) while in relation to a past action (expressed by either past tense or past perfect) it is shown by the fictitious tense called future in the past in the temporal clause (the situation itself being rarer in English than in Romanian - cf. Note 1 below) or merely by a past tense the time relation being indicated by the conjunctions till, until, before, etc.

e.g., (1) The violinist is in Bucharest now, after which/while afterwards he will make a tour of the provinces.

- 2) He stayed in the countryside before he went to study abroad (The future—in-the-past is rare and clumsy in such cases)
- 3) The operations will take several weeks, after which/and subsequently the equipment will be removed to another building-site. (Very much as in example (1), the relation of subordination is rather vague, as there is rather a distinction of time of the two clauses/ between the two actions not one between cause and effect, etc.)

NOTE1: Attention must be paid to the fact that unlike Romanian, where tenses are fairly mixed in narratives, English favours the past tense in such contexts. Therefore, such forms as "după care se duce la Ploiești" ..., "cînd avea să fie numit revizor"..., "iar apoi se va căsători cu ...", are all rendered into English by the past tense (almost exclusively in that language), with the very rare occurrence of the form "when he was to ..." (denoting subsequence).

NOTE 2: As the time of a past action is normally rendered by the preterite, it is but natural to have the same tense for the initial moment, the beginning of an action continuing in the present. Therefore if this is expressed in a complex sentence, the present perfect is used in the main clause, and the preterite in the temporal clause introduced by since :

e.g., I have known him since we joined the same school.

I have been living in this house (ever) since
I came to Bucharest.

The present perfect appears in the subordinate clause only when the two actions run in parallel (a much rarer occurrence) :

e.g., I have worked much less since I have been ill
(="de cînd sînt bolnav"; much more usually
appearing in the normal English pattern since I
fell ill/since I took to my bed, etc.).

2.10. Adverbial clauses of comparison (comparative adverbial clauses) may be considered a peculiar case of the adverbial clauses of manner, as the relation to the predicate which they express is a sort of detail of the more general notion of manner/modality in which the action is performed.

Nevertheless, adverbial clauses of comparison have certain peculiarities, especially as regards the conjunctions introducing them : as, so, than, more than, and especially comparative phrases of various types : as + adverb + as + subject + verb, not more than, no less than, etc.

e.g., She was only a year older than he (was).

(This is one of the controversial cases, much discussed in grammar books, the true position being the following : the complete form of the comparative clause - with the verb expressed - is infrequent in conversation ; moreover, the pronoun remaining alone in final position is

often turned from a nominative into an accusative - as it happens in other languages as well. Seen in these terms, the three possible forms appear in more or less free variation, as stylistic synonyms/synonymous phrases :

She is older than he is - perfectly correct but rare ;

She is older than he. - elliptical and pretentious ;

She is older than him. - grammatically incorrect, but so widespread that it is in fact the only form heard in conversation.

Further examples of adverbial clauses of comparison :

He missed her more than he could have believed.

Do not eat more than you strictly need.

He slept no less than I (did). (Here too applies the situation described in the first example above : colloquially it appears as "He slept no less than me".)

2.11. Adverbial clauses of concession (concessive adverbial clauses) express a contradiction between them and the main clause which is similar to the relation between adversative clauses as part of the compound sentence (with the difference that in this case we have to do with subordination).

Concessive clauses are introduced by the conjunctions : although, though (seldom employed at the head of a sentence, that is when the concessive clause precedes the main one), in spite of/despite the fact that, notwithstanding (the fact) that, by the connective adverbs however, however much, however long, however little, no matter how (much/long),

whether, no matter whether, by the indefinite pronouns whatever, whoever, whichever (and their emphatic correspondents : whatsoever, etc.), no matter what/who/whom/which

e.g., Whatever you will do/No matter what you will do/

However you may act/Whatever you may think, I will go.

The wether has to put up with the weaether, whether he likes it or not. (Possible alternative interpretation as implying an adverbial relation of attending circumstances).

However hard/long/much I may work I cannot finish the job. (The subjunctive enhances the contradiction).

2.12. Adverbial clauses of comparison and concession

have no parallel at the level of the simple sentence.

Nevertheless, they may be reduced through ellipsis to the form "as though/as if + past participle" which may be misleading, as it looks like an adverbial phrase.

What characterizes these clauses is their twofold nature, the combination between comparison and the contradiction of reality through concession, which renders them improbable or impossible. This hypothetical nature warrants the presence in all of them of one form of the subjunctive or another :

- a. the synthetic subjunctive II - equivalent to the past tense (were, had, etc.) for concomitance

between the adverbial clause and the main one :

He behaves as if he were my grandfather.

He spoke as though he were asleep.

- b. the analytic subjunctive I - identical in form with the past perfect (had been/gone/done/begun, etc.) for indicating that the adverbial clause is prior/previous to the main one :

I was as tired as though/as if I had been beaten.

His mind was so dizzy as if he had not slept for weeks.

2.12.1. Note 1 : Sometimes, the hypothetical nature of these clauses makes it impossible for us to know what the presupposition/basic assumption is, or what the reality is actually like :

e.g., He spoke as if he were your friend. (It is not clear what we know about the person's actual status).

He looks as though he were tired/mad. (We don't know whether the respective person is actually tired/mad or not).

2.12.2. Note 2 : In colloquial English, the indicative may also appear in such clauses (perhaps on the assumption of higher probability) :

e.g., It looks as if it were going to rain (= "parea vrea sa ploua" ; as though is infrequent)

He acts as if he wants to tell me something (=

= "(de)parcă ar vrea să-mi spună ceva"; idem)

2.13. Adverbial clauses of condition (conditional clauses) are very frequent and of various natures. They have no correspondent on the plane of the syntax of the simple sentence, condition being expressed mainly with the help of a verb inside the clause.

2.13.1. The conjunctions introducing conditional clauses are subdivided as follows :

- for expressing a positive condition : if, supposing (that), provided (that), suppose (that), on condition (that), in case ... (therefore including conjunctive phrases) ;
- for expressing negative condition : unless, or in case, etc. + not (in fact all the conjunctions and conjunctive phrases listed above - turned negative);
e.g., If I had (not) come to you, you wouldn't have gone to the performance.

Supposing/Suppose/Provided (that) he comes/ he doesn't come, we may go on the trip.

Unless you know something for sure, you needn't answer. (No negation proper appears in the subordinate clause).

If money be not thy servant, it will be thy master. (Proverb)

2.13.2. As the conjunction if (or its equivalents) can be omitted, many examples appear as conditional clauses introduced asyndetically :

e.g., Had he been there he would have heard his favourite tunes.

Were I hungry I should eat something.

Had I time, I should go to see him.

Could I help him, I should do it with pleasure.

Note : As English usage obligatorily requires an anomalous finite at the head of a conditional clause introduced asyndetically - moreover habitually placed in front of the main clause - it means that the omission of if can never be used for the future or present, that it can always be used with reference to the past (because the form of the analytical subjunctive, identical with that of the past perfect, begins with the auxiliary had) and that in correlation with the conditional present in the main clause we can only have an anomalous form. (Analyse the above examples).

2.13.3. Various interpretations can be given to the different cases/patterns/forms in which conditional clauses appear, and out of the possibilities for synthetizing this matter, we prefer the following basic distinctions :

A. from the point of view of their relation to present reality (that is to the situation of things at the moment of speaking or writing) conditional clauses (or rather the condition they express) may appear as (1) real (which means "not contradicting present reality") and (2) unreal (that is in disagreement/conflict/contradiction with present reality).

B. from the point of view of the relation in time to the

moment of speaking or writing, conditional clauses may refer basically to three periods : 1) the future, 2) the present or rather the moment immediately after the present, and 3) the past. This generates the distinction between conditions which are apt to be fulfilled and those which are impossible to fulfil (the last situation which involves a past action, naturally appears as impossible to reverse).

C. moreover, in spite of their appearance (similar to conditional clauses proper in point of conjunctions introducing them as well as in point of tense used), certain clauses may be delusive that is they may seem conditional, without actually being so : in terms of overall meaning or trend, they may be temporal, causal, direct object clauses, etc.

e.g., If I found good music to listen to, I (always/usually) stayed at home; if not, I went to see a film. (The form of this sentence should make us suspicious : indeed more often than not such sentences display the same tense of the verb in the two clauses and include a frequentative adverb (always, etc.), thus revealing their true nature of temporal clauses indicating a repeated/iterative action, easily rephrased as: "Whenever I found ... , I used to stay at home") If she has washing to do, she postpones her sewing. (The peculiarities discussed with

regard to the first example can be perceived here too, but the time of the action is the gnomic/general present).

If she has washing to do, why doesn't she stay at home ?

(The causative relation between the two clauses can be revealed without difficulty, thus identifying the if clause not as a conditional one but as an adverbial clause of reason).

If you were in Bucharest, why didn't you ring me up ? (The same reasoning, applying to the past, but easily revealed as a causative by certain changes : If he was in Bucharest, why didn't he ring me up ? The Romanian equivalents of such clauses usually include such words as : "de vreme ce", "din moment ce", "întrucât", etc.

2.13.4. In another arrangement of conditional clauses, they can be labelled as follows :

I. Conditional clauses of real condition referring to the future (therefore not contradicting present reality) behave like temporal clauses of simultaneousness, that is they include a present indefinite of the indicative mood while the main clause includes the future indefinite : If I have time tomorrow, I shall go there.

II. Conditional clauses of real condition referring to the present alone assure the nature of gnomic/generalizing temporal clauses, with the idea of repetition/reiteration/

recurrence of the action and so the tenses of the indicative are identical in the subordinate clause and in the main one : If I have time I (always/usually/often/generally) play tennis on Sundays. (This may also be construed as temporal : Whenever/When I have time, I play tennis on Sundays.

III. Conditional clauses of real condition referring to the past - assimilated at least theoretically with temporal clauses denoting habitual actions and therefore employing the past indefinite of the indicative mood in both clauses : If I had time I (always) wrote an essay each week. The temporal and recurrent nature of the subordinate clause could find its expression in the frequentative/iterative aspect verbal predicate for the main clause : Whenever I had time, I used to read/I would read a novel each week.

IV. Conditional clauses of unreal condition referring to (immediate) present or the future (usually rather the near future), which means that the condition which does contradict the present reality is apt to be fulfilled some time or other. That is why it is usually called unreal but possible. Since the action is hypothetical, that is conceived rather than perceived, it is natural for some languages to employ an oblique mood in such clauses. In English the arrangement for this type of clauses is : conditional present in the main clause, synthetic subjunctive II (if I were, etc.) in the subordinate clause : If I had time I should go there at once. (The condition may be fulfilled either in the very present or in the immediate future, for the interlocutor may answer

something like : "You may take a day off and go there at once", "Do go now, and I'll look after the child", "Please go, for I can replace you at the office", etc.)

As regards their hypothetical nature and probability cf. also notes under V below.

V. Conditional clauses of unreal condition referring to the past - that is to some action having or not having taken place at some moment in the past - which is therefore beyond changing or altering and can only be regretted, etc. Thus, the condition is highly hypothetical being usually called unreal and impossible, describing a hypothetical condition which has failed to be ^{ful}filled, which is an accomplished fact, an irreversible reality. Therefore, very much as in case IV, some languages resort to the utilization of some oblique mood in both clauses. In English their arrangement is : conditional past/perfect for the main clause and analytic subjunctive I (if I had had) for the subordinate clause.

e.g., If the train had arrived in time, we shouldn't have missed the performance. (But it didn't, so we missed it)

Note 1 : It is for these hypothetical/unreal conditional clauses and especially for that under IV that can well apply the notion of suppositional mood resorted to by some grammarians. (Very much as in the case of comparative-concessive clauses, etc.)

Note 2 : When the speaker/writer considers the unreal condition highly improbable, he shows his doubt by introducing

the modal-defective verb should (either after if or in the asyndetical form with inversion) in both the present/near future and the past (types IV and V) :

If I should meet him/Should I meet him (= dacă l-aş întâlni cumva/totuş) I should give him a piece of my mind.
Should I have met him/(rarely) If I should have met him I should have given him what for.

If I should meet thee

After long years,

Now should I greet thee ?

With silence and tears (Byron, When We Two Parted)

VI. Other clauses introduced by if (but not by other conditional conjunctions, and especially not by unless) may be termed "apparent" conditional clauses, because in fact they are disguised clauses of reason, of result, etc. We distinguish them from genuine conditional clauses through the use of the indicative alone, through the questions they really answer and especially through interpretation of their underlying idea, mainly by means of analogy, etc.

e.g., If you have finished your homework, of course you may go for a walk. (In most cases such a sentence refers to a condition which the speaker knows as having been fulfilled already - and therefore it is easily assimilated with a reason - in this case the reason for allowing the child to take a walk. The fact that it can be assimilated to causative clauses can also be proved by the possibility to substitute the conjunction since or as at the

head of the subordinate clause : Since you have finished/As you have proved good will, you may go, etc.)

If you come to Bucharest, (do) ring me up. (The condition is connected here with an imperative).

If he (= since) he has three children, he probably knows what work means (causative, connected with probability).

If you have come, you may stay/there is no use in going back/we can talk it over, etc. (Practically the same reasoning as in the first example, leading us to the conclusion that cause appears in the underlying structure. Moreover, see the remarks under 2.13.5 infra).

If we are all agreed (= if we have reached an agreement/consensus) we might as well sign a statement to this effect. (Although the relation cause-effect may not be perfectly clear in the surface structure, nevertheless it underlies this sentence, to at least one half of the general meaning).

If (= as, since) he is young, let him work (circumstantial, more or less causative-consecutive, with an -indirect- imperative in the main clause).

If (= since) you are late, you shall remain the last (idem)

If you are late, they put you down as absent (idem + general temporal implications = whenever).

If things are like this, I cannot agree with you. (The interpretation of such a sentence - or rather of the

subordinate clause is twofold if not manifold : apparently it is conditional, which does not seem to find too many justifications. Nevertheless, it may be considered to mean : "If the situation is actually like this", or "If this assertion/survey is valid indeed" which would point to a conditional clause of real condition referring to the present - as described in case II. But unfortunately those refer mostly to a gnomic/general/iterative kind of present. So, a third interpretation stands better chances of validity in our opinion : "As/Since the situation is like this/Such being the situation, I cannot agree, etc." - the adverbial subordinate clauses pointing rather to a causative meaning (Cf. in this respect the discussion under 2.13.5 infra)

If you have been/If you were in the rain for three hours you must be absolutely wet and cold (idem + probability = if it is true that ...)

If we are talking of this matter, let me tell you a few things. (A similar reasoning as above may be applied, yet the interpretations are slightly different : one of the possible renderings/readings of the sentence may be "While/Since we are talking about this, ..." therefore, besides the causative and real-condition framework, there may also be a temporal element, denoting simultaneousness. All this indicates on the one hand the rather intricate interpretation of such clauses, and on the other hand the fact that their circumstantial nature may exceed the limits circumscribing each type of adverbial clause).

If (= as) you knew you didn't have it, why didn't you/
why not ask me for it ? (Practically the same reasoning, but
the main clause contains a tinge of reproach).

If (= since) you had time, why didn't you ring me up ?
(idem)

Note : In older texts - literary, proverbs, etc.
condition used to be expressed also by means of an infinitive
(cf. the functions of the infinitive - the diachronic approach)
As in English the notion of "infinitival clauses" is not
accepted by the majority of grammarians, we cannot consider
that expression of the condition a clause :

e.g., To go there they would make a mistake (An
obsolete form, rarely met today, in which the first part
would be interpreted as an infinitival phrase expressing the
adverbial modifier of condition).

To have gone there, you would have seen many wonders
of nature (As above, but with reference to the past, therefore
an "unreal and impossible condition").

2.13.5. Usually, grammar books of various levels
discuss only three types of conditional clauses, at best,
namely our case I (real condition referring to the future),
IV (unreal condition referring to the present or future,
"unreal but possible") and V (unreal condition referring to
the past - "unreal and impossible"). On the other hand, our
examples and comments so far have probably proved the much
greater variety of conditional clauses. As far as the rather
debatable examples are concerned (enumerated and explained

under case VI), we could draw the conclusion that such sentences hold a minor place - if any - in grammatical thinking, while they do appear in conversation and writing, with a frequency which justifies our taking them up, however. They have a twofold or threefold nature : as besides condition proper (hypothetical or real) they may involve other types of circumstantial relations they may be characterized as conditional-causative (cf. Gramatica Academiei RSR, volume II, paragraph 311 - especially in connection with the conjunctive phrases "de vreme ce, din moment ce, cîtă vreme"), conditional-consecutive, conditional-temporal (frequentative, iterative in nuance).

2.13.6. The intricacy of these types of clauses points not only to the complicated nature of conditional clauses, but also to the fact that this is justified by their reflecting multifold circumstantial relations, manifold aspects which are brought together in one reasoning or expression, in one type of clause, which may be, for instance, conditional, causative and consecutive at the same time. Therefore the presence of the conjunctions if in English or "dacă", "din moment ce", etc. in Romanian is not always indicative of the true or simple nature of the clause introduced by them, a much deeper analysis proving necessary.

This truly circumstantial nature of such clauses may also remind us of the adverbial modifiers of attending circumstance, whose actual essence cannot be perfectly well defined either by interpretation or by specific questions, as it happens with

other kinds of adverbial modifiers or clauses. Therefore, we may assume that while other kinds of clauses offer a more specific kind of modification (and sometimes even determination) such clauses with an ambiguous or multifold or vague interpretation create a general framework or frame of reference for the action of the predicate (involving such terms as time, motivation, condition, etc.) or that they are comparable to double or multifold determination in other chapters of grammar.

2.14. Adverbial clauses of reason/cause also called causal/causative clauses denote the first element in the relation of determination or of cause to effect. (In this respect, cf. also adverbial clauses of result under 2.15 infra)

The role discharged by these clauses is similar to that of adverbial modifiers of reason/cause at the level of the simple extended sentence.

These clauses are introduced by the conjunctions because, since (N.B. they can also be employed as prepositions), as, considering (that), seeing (that), (the last two having in Romanian equivalents "întrucît, de vreme ce, dim moment ce"), now (that) (="dacă tot"..., "cîtă vreme"), for the reason that, in view of the fact that, (N.B. Very much as in the case of the prepositional phrase in view of, introducing adverbial modifiers of cause, this conjunctive phrase does not refer to the future). On the other hand, the conjunction for is not mentioned here because grammarians usually consider that it expresses reason in relations of causative-consecutive coordination, as part of the compound sentence (q.v.)

e.g., Because/Since/As/Considering I had no money on me, I couldn't buy the book.

Considering/Seeing/Now that/For the reason that/
In view of the fact that we are all here, we may/
might as well begin our discussion (= "Din moment
ce/De vreme ce/ Dacă tot ne-am adunat, la urma
urmei putem să/hai să începem discuția").

Since/As he was in Bucharest, I am sorry we didn't meet. (The interpretation may not be very easy, but of course that of a temporal clause can easily be dismissed ; Since as a temporal conjunction introduces a clause in the past tense, but then the main clause includes the present perfect - common or continuous aspect ; the relation between cause and effect is not perfectly clear, it is rather a matter of some general conditions being fulfilled as a framework offering the possibility for the action in the main clause to take place, which renders such a clause similar to those discussed among conditional ones, under 2.13.4 - 2.13.6).

Seeing (that)/As there was no chance for basking in the sun, we went for a drive. (Such a clause can also be rendered by In view of the fact that there was no chance, etc. in which the reason is expressed - from the formal point of view - as a relative-attributive clause, attached to the noun fact).

2.15. Adverbial clauses of result or consequence/
effect, also called consecutive adverbial clauses (as in
Romanian) show the same relation as that expressed by adverbial
modifiers of result/consequence in simple extended sentences,
that is the ultimate part of the relation cause to effect.
As a matter of fact, the two elements are so closely bound up
in these clauses, that it is sometimes difficult to say at
first sight which is the main clause and which the subordinate.

Adverbial clauses of result are introduced by the
conjunctive phrase so that, in American English more usually
by the conjunction so and in both British and American English
by the correlative conjunctions so (placed in front of an
adjective or adverb in the main clause) and that (in the sub-
ordinate clause).

e.g., I was tired, so that I went to bed early (A.E.
so I went ...)

or

I was so tired that I went to bed early.

She was so ill that she could hardly answer the
telephone.

or

She was very ill indeed, so that (A.E. - so) she
could hardly answer the telephone.

Laura had so much improved in health and looks
that Fred could not but admire her. (It is
easily noticed that the relation between cause
and effect can also be expressed along a direct
line, that is causative clause + main clause

denoting effect/result :

As Laura had very much improved in health and looks (causative), Fred could not but admire her (main clause).

So great was his embarrassment that he blushed all over (Inversion enhances the effect).

2.15.1. Another resultative pattern is : Such + linking verb + noun + that + subordinate consecutive clause :
e.g., Such was/is the situation that we could not/
cannot but agree.

Such are/Such have been the difficulties
(that)it is really remarkable (that) he (has)
succeeded after all/at all.

2.16. Adverbial clauses of purpose, also called final clauses (in which the word "final" is connected with the idea of finality, of ultimate aim) discharge the same function as adverbial modifiers of purpose in simple extended sentences.

Adverbial clauses of purpose are introduced by the conjunctions/conjunctival phrases so that (the most usual in standard English), in order that (rather official or formal), that (rather familiar), so (the most current in colloquial American English), for the purpose that (bookish), all of them normally followed by an analytic subjunctive, in standard English.

e.g., I am drawing nearer so that I may get a clearer
view of the scene.

We were drawing nearer so that we might form

a better opinion of the situation (In this case might replace may for reasons of sequence of tenses, in order to indicate concomitance with a past action).

I shall go to his office so that I might find him after all (in this case might replaces may in a sort of concessive purpose, the interpretation being the following : "Having despaired of finding him, I hope that my last chance lies in getting him at the office").

Therefore the purpose is considered difficult or unlikely to attain, which makes such clauses similar to those of highly improbable condition - highly hypothetical, expressed in the form "If I should meet him/Should I meet him ... ="dacă totuși l-aș întâlni cumva ..."

Our working people are making every effort in order that the plan may be fulfilled ahead of schedule. (In the official style and more particularly in American English, the formal or solemn note of such a sentence is preferably rendered by means of the synthetic subjunctive I :

"... in order that the plan be fulfilled").

Note : Given the usual association of the construction with formal/official/solemn contexts, in British usage the synthetic subjunctive rarely appears in conversation, in private letters, etc. whereas in American English it may do so,

and not only in association with the more formal conjunctional phrase in order that.

e.g., (American English) He is learning so he become a teacher. (The occurrence of such an example in Britain usage does not seem to have been mentioned by grammarians).

On the other hand (possibly by confusion with this situation) British usage includes such formulations as :

e.g., He does this so that he becomes a teacher.

The utilization of the indicative mood in such cases, though perhaps evincing some psychological motivation, does not resist comparison with grammatical rules governing the use of direct or oblique moods. As a matter of fact this instance of usage is normally labelled as substandard.

2.16.1. Negative purpose may be expressed by the same conjunctions with the addition of the negation not attached to may or might which are used as semiauxiliaries for forming the analytic subjunctive, but more usually English people prefer to express it with the help of the conjunction lest (now considered to be on the decline in point of frequency) or the conjunctional phrase for fear that (described by grammarians as preferable in conversation), both of them followed by the analytic subjunctive with should. (N.B. -The negation is implied in the semantic of these conjunctions, so that it would be a mistake to add not to the verb).

Here are some examples of the way negative purpose is expressed :

e.g., I am going/I went home/I shall go there early
lest I should miss him. (As mentioned above,
grammarians recommend "for fear that I should miss
him" in this case, because it is part of a
conversation).

For fear that I should miss the picture, I picked
up the tickets/I usually pick up the tickets early
in the morning.

All measures have been taken/will be taken/were
taken lest the epidemic should spread. (It is
easily noticed that the time/tense of the action
in the subordinate is not influenced by a change
in the time/tense of the main clause, as final
clauses do not fall under the incidence of
sequence of tense constraints).

xs

Note : When the subject/agent of the two actions is
identical, - and preferably the first person - an infinitival
phrase is preferred, in both the affirmative and the negative,
quite often preceded by in order to for the sake of clarity:

e.g., I went there (in order) to speak to him

(perfectly correct, very frequent)

He stayed at home (in order)(not) to face the

embarrassing situation (correct, not so frequent)

When the two actions have different subjects/agents,

the construction "for—to infinitive"/"for-phrase + infinitive" is employed. (He drew near, for me to see him), perhaps in preference to a complex sentence (He drew near so that I may see him).

x x x

2.17. Certain grammars go even further in the discrimination of subordinates, distinguishing another rather peculiar type of secondary clause called the introductory emphatic clause. This is the term adopted in order to designate the construction usually called "introductory emphatic it", that is the one which creates a framework meant to emphasize any element of the sentence (with the exception of the predicate or any part of it).

This frame-structure, apt to be called an introductory emphatic clause, places the part of the sentence meant to be emphasized between an obligatory first part (the introductory emphatic it followed by the verb to be in the third person singular) and the correlative part which may be expressed by the relative pronouns that, who, whom, whose or which (all of them being apt to be omitted in colloquial as well as written English).

e.g., It is he/Henry/the boy (that/who) broke the window (Emphasis of the subject ; in this particular case, the ellipsis of the relative pronoun is highly colloquial - the asyndetic connection

occurring mainly in rapid speech).

It's the dark girl (that/whom) he married, not the fair one. (Emphasis of the attribute, for contrast of person ; the relative pronoun may be omitted by anybody).

It's the novel (that) I enjoyed, not the film made after it. (Emphasis of the direct object. The pronoun which does not seem to occur frequently in this case ; the adversative clause is not indispensable).

It's to him (that) I gave the chocolate, not to you. (Emphasis of the indirect object, with the same remark as above).

It's by tram (that) I came, not by taxi. (Emphasis of the prepositional object ; the same remarks).

It is with great enthusiasm (that) he received the news (Emphasis of the adverbial modifier of manner ; the utilization of an adverb in this case is rare - e.g., It is but reluctantly (that) he accepted ; the omission of the relative pronoun is also rare).

It's in the orchard (that) I found him, not in his study (Emphasis of the adverbial modifier of place, the omission of that is acceptable).

It's yesterday (that) I met him, not today (Emphasis of the adverbial modifier of definite

time ; the omission of that is current).

2.18. Another type of adverbial clause identified only by certain grammarians is a restrictive sub-species of adverbial clause of manner called adverbial clause of relation.

Usually it is introduced by the conjunctive phrase as far as with the meaning "to the extent to which", which can also appear in the forms as concerns, as regards - with slightly less restrictive meaning - more specific generally.

e.g., As far as money is concerned, this is my business.

There is no problem as far as they are concerned
/as regards them/as concerns them.

Note : Because of its restrictive/qualifying meaning, this clause seems to be semantically related to the next type of clause, described under 2.19.

2.19. The adverbial clause of quantity, measure, degree, intensity and approximation (corresponding to the adverbial modifiers brought together under the same heading in the syntax of the simple extended sentence) is another type of restrictive qualifying clause - therefore usually considered just a particular case of the adverbial clauses of manner.

Yet, there are justifications for separating it from the latter, since (given the variety of elements it covers) it may include also temporal and other factors.

It is introduced by the conjunction as (mainly with a temporal meaning of gradation/progress but also with that of

approximation) and by the conjunctive phrases according as and in proportion as (with the same implications), as far as/
in so much as/that/in so far as ("în măsura în care").

(N.B. - To be kept well apart from the causative conjunctive phrase in as much as = "întrucât, prin faptul că") as long as (= "atâta vreme cât", therefore with a durative meaning, indicating similarity or co-occurrence between two periods of time), to the extent that, as much as (similar in meaning = "în măsura în care", like most other conjunctive phrases of this type).

e.g., Unfortunately, as he grew older he grew sillier, not wiser.

According as they advanced into the forest, panic seized them more and more/they were more and more panic-stricken.

As/According/In proportion as the papers accumulated, he grew more and more hopeless and inefficient.

I shall help you as much as I can (= "atît cât pot, în măsura în care voi putea, după puterile mele")

As the hour approached, his courage failed him more and more.

I corrected the text, to the extent that I could make head or tail of it. ("în măsura în care reușeam să-l deslușesc" - with a possible interpretation as a relative clause attributive

to the noun extent)

I won't forgive him as long as I live (a temporal-durative interpretation seems to be fairly adequate in this case).

2.20. Certain grammarians have also separated adverbial clauses of exception from the other subordinate adverbial clauses. Such clauses show the situation which deviates from usual/normal/habitual circumstances, therefore being one more particular case of what could be called adverbial clauses of attending circumstances (a counterpart of adverbial modifiers of attending/attendant circumstances on the plane of the simple extended sentence). The adverbial clause of exception is introduced by conjunctive phrases made up of the prepositions except and save (rather obsolete nowadays) or the restrictive adverb only - all of them followed by the conjunction that or the relative adverb when, except that, except when, save that, only that, etc.

e.g., He works very hard except when his wife has him go shopping.

I like it very much only that it is dreadfully expensive.

Tired with all these, from these would I be gone
Save that, to die (= only that if I die) I leave my love alone.

(In this quotation from Sonnet 66 by Shakespeare, the infinitive is used instead of a conditional clause - one of the

obsolete functions of the infinitive - but the interpretation is : "except that when dying I leave my love alone").

2.21. However detailed this discrimination of clauses, the variety of syntactical relations is so great that some clauses are slightly different from all types mentioned and/or are difficult to classify, as they resemble several ones (as we saw also under 2.13.3 - 2.13.4).

2.21.1. For instance elliptical sentences of the pattern The more, the merrier, The sooner, the better cannot be construed/glossed clearly unless they are rewritten in their full form :

e.g., The more (we are), the merrier (we shall be).

The sooner (you come), the better (it will be).

The shorter (you make the report), the better
(it will turn out).

Two essential questions arise :

- Which is the main clause and which the subordinate ?
- Of what type is the subordinate ?

By the look of things, the second clause is the main one the first being subordinated to it, if it is interpreted as conditional (= if we are more, if you come sooner) or temporal (= when you make the report, when we are), both interpretations being justified also by the use of tenses.

On the other hand we may interpret the relation between the clauses as resultative ("Come sooner and (so) it will be better/so that it will be better") for it may be rather

consecutive-causative coordination (compound sentence).

The labels of adverbial clause of comparison or of attending circumstances are also possible.

2.21.2. Similarly, doubts are raised by a sentence like

A) I was sleepy, (all) the more so as I had drunk
some beer

(which may also appear into the structure

B) I was all the sleepier as I had drunk beer)

The relation cause to effect seems obvious (in sentence A - main clause +causative clause ; in sentence B - the same, but with the possibility to construct it as "I had drunk beer so that I was sleepy" - therefore main clause + consecutive clause). Yet it is also possible to consider we have to do with causative-consecutive coordination as part of a compound sentence "I had drunk some beer and so/therefore I was (all the)sleepier" (cf.also 2.21.1. supra)

XVII THE SEQUENCE OF TENSES

o.1. This is a rather controversial subject, from various points of view.

On the one hand many learners of English proceed from observations regarding the liberties taken by native speakers at this point, as well as regarding some fluctuations and inconsistencies present even in literary texts, - and draw the general conclusion that English people do not abide by the rules of the sequence of tenses. Hence the contention that deviations from the norms described and prescribed by grammar books are not exactly mistakes.

On the other hand there is a tradition of teaching the prescriptions of the sequence of tenses as a general hard-and-fast rule which covers all sentences based on subordination (complex sentences) while the many situations in which the sequence of tenses does not apply are labelled "exceptions" - e.g. attributive, subject, predicative and other clauses.

o.2. Two corollary inferences are made from this basic contention or assumption and which are at least debatable if not mistaken :

First, in teaching - and at any level whatever - people include the requirements of English grammar regarding the use

of the subjunctive (in various forms) and not only as required by a past tense in the main clause, but also under the government of specific constructions - within the same domain of sequence of tenses.

Secondly, at an intermediate or elementary level, learners are often apt to mistake the sequence of tenses for indirect speech and vice-versa.

o.3. All these preconceived ideas, wrong assumptions or incomplete, biased conclusions, could be corrected by the following points :

(a) out of the 16 up to 20 types of subordinate clauses distinguished by grammarians (cf. the lecture on the complex sentence) the restrictions, constraints or specific requirements regarding tenses apply only to three types of subordinate clauses (direct object clauses, conditional clauses and adverbial clauses of time) ;

(b) further restrictions, constraints and specific requirements in other types of subordinate clauses - brought about either by the absolute rules for certain types of clauses or by the specific exigencies of certain constructions as part of definite patterns - refer to moods (specifically the subjunctive, in various forms) not to tenses of the indicative.

Note : As a matter of fact, even the arrangement of verbal forms in sentences including conditional clauses refers to moods as well as tenses - as seen in the discussion on conditional clauses.

(c) indirect speech is wrongly identified with the sequence of tenses owing to its great frequency in spoken and written English, which in fact only points to its true nature: an extensive and very frequent field of application of the rules of sequence of tenses, covering, however, only one type of subordinate clause - namely direct object clauses.

(d) as regards the liberties taken by English speaking people in this field of sequence of tenses, they are part and parcel of a "laxer" kind of speech (and writing, occasionally) which is not exactly sub-standard, but is not formal English either, being typical of colloquial and highly colloquial English. Such solecisms may appear in any spoken language, but they should never be a guide for foreigners.

0.4. In the light of the above, we shall try to view the problem of the sequence of tenses in a broader perspective, taking into consideration on the one hand the requirements and constraints regarding both tenses and moods and on the other hand the occasional laxity manifest in colloquial English in connection with certain rules, while pointing out both the hard-and-fast rules which are practically never infringed and those mistakes which may appear as more serious in the eyes of native speakers.

1.0. In our conception, taken lato sensu, what is usually called the sequence of tenses is in fact a set of rules governing the selection of verbal forms - tenses or moods - in certain types of subordinate clauses under the influence

of a number of tenses or constructions in the main or regent clauses.

This broader definition therefore tries to reconcile the stricto sensu interpretation - confined to the area covered by the word tenses - with the actual situation which displays requirements beyond the mere use of tenses, as well as with the practical confusion prevalent among many people - teachers as well as pupils.

The adoption of such an elastic definition offers us the possibility for a more comprehensive approach and for systematizing all the specific constraints and restrictions imposed upon verbal forms in various types of subordinates, which can thus be described in the same order in which they were analysed in the lecture on the complex sentence.

1.1. If we interpret these rules of the sequence of tenses (and moods) in a broader perspective - namely that offered by the conception of grammar in close interdependence with the other domains of linguistics, and in close connection with logic, the constraints of the sequence of tenses appear as obligatory deviations from logic or infringements of it.

1.2. In fact, we could consider that we have to do with two kinds of logic : the general logic of the use of tenses, based on the relations between tense and time and on the intra-linguistic relations between the tenses themselves, and applied with slight changes by the grammar of all languages. On the other hand, there seem to be specific

requirements as part of a kind of special logic with specific constraints typical of one language or another, to a smaller or larger extent, on the basis of some rules in the original language from which the respective modern language has developed as well as on the basis of modifications - more or less substantial - which have appeared during the evolution of the respective language.

To put it differently, we could say that in English the rules of general logic regarding tenses apply in the vast majority of subordinate clauses - to say nothing of independent sentences - while in three types of subordinate clauses a specific kind of logic is applied, involving certain constraints which do not exist in Romanian.

We presume it is in this way that sequence of tenses should be taught as rules specific to English logic - though some are to be found in French, German, Italian, Spanish, etc. in a similar or practically the same way.

1.3. Therefore, the traditional description or labelling of sequence of tenses could be interpreted in the following way: a specific kind of logic is obligatory for certain clauses, while the "exceptions" (in fact the much more numerous clauses for which there are no specific rules) offer perfect freedom - that is the unaltered application of general, possibly universal logic.

Note: For purposes of convenience and symmetry, the numbering of the paragraphs parallels the arrangement of subordinate clauses in the previous lecture.

2.0. The Application of Constraints Upon the Tenses and Moods in Various Subordinate Clauses

Discussing the various subordinate clauses in turn, we must bear in mind the fundamental observation that obligatory changes or arrangements in subordinate clauses are determined either by tenses employed in the main clause or by certain constructions present in it.

2.1. Subject clauses are not influenced by the rules of the sequence of tenses proper. This means that - as is but normal - there is perfect freedom in the utilization of tenses in such clauses.

On the other hand, there are certain constructions (including a number of verbs, adjectives, nouns) which bring along specific requirements regarding (a) mood - namely the subjunctive - and (b) tenses.

2.1.1. (A) The construction "it is necessary/important/advisable/inevitable/better"... is followed by the analytic subjunctive present with should(which is justified by the modalities usually indicated by this verb).

e.g., It is necessary/important etc. ... that he should be announced about it (subject clause)

Note : In American English the synthetic subjunctive I (I be, etc.) very often occurs not only in writing but also in speech, whereas this sounds official/formal in British English.

e.g., It is advisable that she be there tomorrow.

(B) The construction "it is possible/probable"

is followed by the present analytical subjunctive with may for normal probability (though the present indicative is also accepted) or by the analytical subjunctive with might (for smaller probability /chances - narrower possibility - that is the one including more doubt).

e.g., It is possible that he may have arrived (= I doubt it but it is not entirely out of the question).

It is possible that he might have arrived (= I very much doubt it, I consider it hardly possible, but I don't want to contradict you).

(C) The construction it is strange/surprising/amazing/gratifying, etc. ... is nowadays followed by the indicative, the utilization of oblique moods being less frequent in contemporary colloquial English.

e.g., It is (rather) strange/surprising/etc. ...
that he doesn't like Fielding/(rather obsolete)
that he shouldn't like it.

(D) The construction it is certain/sure/etc. ... does not impose constraints, but if it is employed in the past - it was certain/sure/etc. - it does have the value of a past tense in the main clause, telling upon the tense in the direct object clause. So, the preterite, the past perfect or, respectively, the future in the past, is employed in the clause following this construction.

e.g., It was certain/sure that he was tired/that he

had worked too hard/that he would soon fall
asleep.

2.2. Predicative Clauses are another type of syntactical units in which, formally speaking, perfect freedom reigns as regards tenses.

e.g., The problem is if we can do it/if he would do
it/if he will be able to do it/if he has done
it etc.

This is what he told me/what he thinks/what he
will probably say.

There are no constructions affecting the logical freedom of tenses.

2.3. Direct object clauses are indeed an ample field of application of the rules of sequence of tenses proper. Nevertheless, the constraints of sequence of tenses apply only in connection with some of these clauses, namely those which are subordinated to a "past" tense in the main clause, that is when we have to do with "reported speech" proper.

Therefore we can distinguish two main situations :

2.3.1. When in the main clause we have one of the tenses belonging to "the group of the present", that is the present indefinite, the present perfect, or the future (usually indefinite) - all of them in either the common or the continuous aspect - normally there is perfect logical freedom in the direct object clause :

e.g., He says/He has said/He will say/Tell him that

you are ill/that you have been ill/that you were ill last week, etc.

Note : Certain grammar books detail this rule by taking each case separately. But, since this entails a hypertrophy of the number of rules, we prefer to group them together.

2.3.1.1. There are, however, two limitations in these clauses, even under the situation discussed here, connected with moods rather than tenses :

(A) verbs of request, order and insistence are followed by the analytic subjunctive with should in British English or by the synthetic subjunctive in American English :

e.g., B.E. I request/I demand/I order that you should go.

A.E. We demand, etc. that they go there at once.

(Therefore also in American conversation,
as well as in official English)

(B) After the verb to suggest the indicative is normally employed in a construction of the following type :

e.g., I suggest that she goes right home.

However, American English would again resort to synthetic subjunctive I :

e.g., (A.E.) I suggest that she go right home.

2.3.2. When in the main or regent clause there is the past tense, the past perfect or any other tense or mood

(common or continuous aspect) including an element in the past tense (therefore a conditional too) the following three rules for the past are applied :

(a) concomitance/simultaneousness/simultaneity of the direct object clause with the verb in the main clause, employed in a tense belonging to the group of a past, is shown by means of the past tense throughout :

e.g., He (had) said that it was nine o'clock already.

I am sure that he would say it was too late to take a walk.

(b) anteriority/previousness/priority to an action expressed by a verb in the tenses mentioned above (a) is indicated by employing the past perfect in the subordinate clause.

e.g., He (had) said he had worked too hard.

I knew he would answer he had not read the book yet.

(c) subsequence/posteriority/ulteriority as against the action in the main clause expressed as above - under (a) - is indicated by the utilization of the future in the past - that is a fictitious tense with the aspect of the conditional. It does not indicate time precisely, it just marks the posteriority of the action in the direct object clause, whose timing is non-defined, differing from one case to another, in keeping with a timing of the action in the main clause and therefore referring to the past, to the present or to the future (time).

e.g., He said last Monday that he would call on me
on Thursday/by the end of last week/today/
this week/by the end of this week/this
Thursday/next Thursday/in autumn/at Christmas/
next year, etc.

Therefore the future in the past may have its action set at any point in the past, present or future after the moment denoted by the main clause.

Note 1 : If in direct speech the main or independent clause contains a future perfect, in the transition to indirect speech, under the influence of a past tense in the main clause, the tense in the subordinate clause becomes "future perfect in the past", that is the other fictitious tense (having the form of the conditional perfect).

e.g., Direct speech : "Come to me at 8 o'clock. I shall have arrived home by then".

Indirect speech : He told me to come/go to him at eight o'clock, as (he hoped) he would have arrived home by then/by that time.

Note 2 : As regards the assimilation of the conditional present and of any other tense or mood including a past tense (of the auxiliary) in its structure, fluctuations of usage are manifest, while grammar books say very little on the subject. Such being the situation, we have reached the conclusion that it is again a matter of difference between formal English and laxer registers, to the effect that, for

written English, the prescription seems to be to use a form like "If I told him this, he would say you were mad", whereas in colloquial English the prescription is not observed, so that people would say "If I told him the truth, he would answer I am no longer his friend".

2.3.3. There are two main types of truths - (A) general or (B) lasting (and irreversible) which are usually described as exceptions to the rules governing the tenses in direct object clauses, that is assertions whose validity exceeds the moment of speaking and therefore do not fall under the incidence of sequence of tenses constraints.

2.3.3.1. Universal truths are the best known of these two cases but unfortunately, in our opinion, their importance, their spreading and the scope of their application seem to have been exaggerated, leading to the appearance of mistakes which are justified by this "theory" in the eyes of foreigners, on the other hand appearing as unwarranted to the English.

Therefore learners of English should understand and bear in mind the fact that - in conformity with logic or perhaps only with English thinking - in order to be rightfully considered universal truths, statements have to be (a) generally accepted ; (b) scientifically proved ; (c) connected with the domain of some exact science (astronomy, physics, chemistry, mathematics, geography, geology, etc.) and (d) present in scientific, didactic, etc. texts or lectures/contributions.

e.g., The teacher explained to us that the universe is infinite, that there are in fact several

universes, that ours is not the only one, that the planets move around the sun which is its centre, etc.

He wrote to me (that) he had again realized (that) two quantities equal to a third one are necessarily equal to each other (A rather far-fetched situation / context , difficult to conceive).

Note 1 : Since universal truths have to fulfil so many conditions, the often quoted example "Galilei said that the earth moves round the sun" is debatable, as at the time of Galilei it did not meet conditions (a) and (b). So it would be correct to put it as : "Galilei said that the earth moved" etc. as it was merely his contention, not yet proved and - most obviously - not yet accepted.

Note 2 : It is necessary to point out, in teaching the rule covering universal truths, that the latter do not normally appear in conversation and that being confined to the field of science their occurrence in indirect speech could only be connected with the rare cases of a summary, narration or relation reproducing scientific discussions, etc.

2.3.3.2. Assertions referring to prolonged, lasting or irremediable/irreversible situations are the other exception to the application of sequence of tenses constraints upon direct object clauses . They are much more important in our opinion, because they do find their place often enough in

indirect speech.

e.g., I knew that he is an orphan (A condition which cannot be changed - irreversible or irremediable)

He said that he has lost both his parents (The same reasoning, though the past perfect may occur, as a matter of course, by analogy, by dint of habit and custom, etc.)

He wrote to me that because of a very bad accident he will be confined to his bed for a year or so.

(The condition is not irremediable, but the period of convalescence being so long, it goes beyond the moment of speaking - deictic future).

She said that she no longer works, since she has a fairly substantial retirement pension (The condition is either irreversible or stands a good chance of being prolonged).

Note : It is suggested that teachers and pupils should devote more attention to this case since the bias for universal truths makes them overlook the much greater importance and currency of this latter exception to the sequence of tenses.

2.4. Indirect object clauses naturally do not fall under the incidence of the sequence of tenses.

e.g., He gave no thought to what we are supposed to do/to what will happen tomorrow/to what had/has been going on here.

2.5. Prepositional object clauses also allow perfect

freedom of general logic to govern the tenses in them, without any influence of the sequence of tenses constraints.

e.g., He didn't care about what will happen.

He seemed to be entirely ignorant of what is happening/will happen etc.

2.6. The same applies to attributive clauses, although - given their extreme variety - in certain cases people feel bound (perhaps unconsciously but more probably with some degree of logical motivation) to apply the English type of logic. Therefore, though generally attributive clauses appear in the form :

e.g., He gave me the book which I need for my paper/
which I shall present during a seminar/which he
has enjoyed enormously etc.,

nevertheless, English people feel more inclined to establish the same relationships of previousness, concomitance or subsequence to the past tense in the main clause, as if the subordinate were a temporal clause, etc.

e.g., Yesterday, I received the letter which he had
written about a month ago/which I had been
expecting for some days/which made me extremely
happy etc.

Occasionally even the future in the past does appear in such cases :

e.g., She showed me the dress which she would/(less
frequently) will wear at the ball.

Thus we could say that the freedom which English people enjoy as regards the tenses in attributive clauses is applied in conformity with the logic governing all English sentences.

Note : The same remarks may apply (though usually to a smaller extent) to indirect object clauses and prepositional object clauses (2.4, 2.5) but we must not forget that such clauses are of rather rare occurrence in English.

2.7.0. The rules and constraints of the sequence of tenses apply differently to the various adverbial clauses, in some of them appearing rather in the form of constraints upon moods (respectively the subjunctive or conditional).

2.7.1. In adverbial clauses of manner proper (modal clauses) theoretically the same freedom of logic is current, though normally incorporating also the justifiable deviation discussed under 2.6.

e.g., He did as is best for him/as he was told/as he had been advised to do (It is rather unusual to have the future or the future in the past in such clauses, though cases of subsequence are conceivable : "He acted as will/would best suit him in the future").

2.8. Adverbial clauses of place (locative or directional) naturally do not apply any constraints whatever, since they are extremely remote from the idea of time and from time relations. Taken all in all, however, they may appear in the

form of attributive clauses (described under 2.6).

e.g., I went where I knew I could/should/would find him.

(This form is preferable, but in the case of a piece of general information, valid at all times, English people may have evaded the constraints of the sequence of tenses : "I went where I can always find him")

Wherever I looked, I shall see the same happiness.

(In this case the locative clause in fact has a concessive meaning = "Oriîncotro mi-aş întoarce privirile", which normally takes a subjunctive - and in fact the analytic subjunctive with should is preferred, because it conveys more of the idea of concession : "Wherever I should look, I should see/(I am sure) I shall see the same happiness".

Note therefore the variety of tenses brought about by the different implications - the purely concessive meaning would be better conveyed by a conditional or a concessive clause proper : "If I looked everywhere/However much I should look, I should/shall see only/but happiness").

I turned my eyes where/wherefrom/whither the sounds were coming. (In this case English logic has to be applied as regards concomitance, but of course the form with a noun + attributive clause may be preferred : "I turned my eyes in the direction

where/ from which the noises were coming" etc. -

therefore applying the same logic of concomitance with the past, as that pointed out in 2.6).

2.9. Adverbial clauses of time (temporal clauses)

provide one of the substantial domains of application of sequence of tenses rules and constraints. On the whole, the theoretical basis is similar to that governing direct object clauses, namely :

2.9.1. The tenses in the group of the present (present indefinite and present perfect with their continuous forms) as well as the imperative allow perfect freedom regarding tenses in subordinate clauses :

e.g., He always writes/He has always written/For many years he has been writing (only) when he is at rest/when he has finished reading/after he has seen some action on the spot.
Come only when you are told/when you have finished the exercise, etc.

Note : Of course, no future tense appears in temporal clauses even in this case.

2.9.2. The tenses in the group of the future (future indefinite, near future, future perfect - though the last mentioned rarely has a subordinate attached to it, as it shows only a future action previous to some moment, not to some action) require the present indefinite for concomitance and the present perfect for indicating the anteriority of the temporal clause as against the main clause :

e.g., I shall/will come to you when I am in Cluj/as soon as I arrive/(less colloquial) as soon as I have arrived/after I have watched the film on the TV/ (less correct, but colloquial) after the film ends/ but not before you have apologized/(more familiar) but/though not before you apologize, etc.

He will (again) be my friend when he does his duty/as soon as he has proved more honesty and sincerity /when he turns out a better man/after he has made up for his mistake/but not until he has paid his debts/immediately (after) he has returned to me the letter he stole yesterday/he has stolen.

2.9.3. The tenses in the group of the past (past tense or preterite, past perfect, conditional - present or perfect, cf. the discussion of direct object clauses under 2.3.2, Note 2) require in the subordinate temporal clause the past tense/preterite for concomitance, and the past perfect for indicating anteriority to the main clause (subsequence is difficult to conceive here and so the future in the past appears mainly in direct object clauses - cf. 2.3.2).

e.g., He came here after he had heard of my accident/as soon as he (had) learnt of what had happened to me/when he (had) heard the news of my accident (In colloquial English, if anteriority is perfectly clear from the context or made explicit through the use of the conjunctions

after, before, etc. the preterite may occur instead of the past perfect, with the same value) You know, I went there, you know, in a hurry, you know, when I saw he didn't return home that night. (Clearly colloquial).

2.10. Adverbial clauses of comparison (comparative adverbial clauses) are a typical example of the application of general logic without other constraints than those entailed precisely by logic :

e.g., Now she behaved better than she usually does/
did/had done/than she will probably behave at
any time in the future.

He was a year older than I was (the only possible form, for obvious logical reasons).

2.11. Adverbial clauses of concession (concessive clauses) generally exhibit the freedom of logic as regards tenses which we have found with most subordinate clauses. Nevertheless, the utilization of the subjunctive does appear in certain cases (as described in the lecture on the complex sentence, in section 2.11).

e.g., Although he was very tired/Although he had
worked enormously he felt like going to the concert.

He did not have a large breakfast, though he
was hungry enough/though he would not have
time to eat during the day/though he had not

eaten any supper the night before.

2.12. Adverbial clauses of comparison and concession (concessive-comparative clauses) impose the constraints on moods (the utilization of the "were" subjunctive for concomitance with the main clause or of the "had been" subjunctive for priority to the action in the main clause) as described in greater detail in the discussion of those clauses under 2.12 in the lecture on the complex sentence.

e.g., He spoke very little during the party, as if/
as though he were angry with all of us/or as
though/as if he had been offended by all of us.

2.13. Adverbial clauses of condition (conditional clauses offer a vast field of application of the rules of sequence of tenses and with a multitude of cases and situations.

2.13.1. As shown extensively in the section devoted to conditional clauses in the lecture on the complex sentence (2.13), besides the conditional clauses of various types there are in English as well as in other languages pseudo-conditional clauses, that is temporal, causative, consecutive clauses disguised as conditional ones, or rather appearing as conditional, mainly because of the presence of the conjunction if at their head.

2.13.2. We can include the conditional clauses proper as well as the pseudo-conditional clauses in the following table describing the rules and constraints upon tenses and moods in standard English :

TYPE OF CLAUSE	TENSE/MOOD IN THE MAIN CLAUSE	TENSE/MOOD IN THE SUBORDINATE CLAUSE
I. Real condition referring to the future e.g.,	<u>Future of the Indicative</u> Her father will be angry, if she comes home late.	<u>Indicative present</u>
II. Real condition referring to the present e.g.,	<u>Present Indefinite</u> The old dog gives a counsel, if he barks.	<u>Present Indefinite</u>
III. Real condition referring to the past e.g.,	<u>Present Perfect or Preterite</u> He (has) made a mistake, if he (has) acted thus	<u>Present Perfect or Preterite</u>
IV. Disguised temporal clause referring to the present e.g.,	<u>Present Indefinite</u> He reads a lot, if/when/whenever he has got time.	<u>Present Indefinite</u>
V. Disguised temporal clause referring to the past e.g.,	<u>Preterite (habitual)</u> He ate/would eat/used to eat at Capşa's	<u>Preterite (habitual)</u> if/when/whenever he had enough money.
VI. Unreal condition referring to the present or future (Unreal but possible) e.g.,	<u>Conditional present</u> I should go there,	<u>Synthetic subjunctive II (= past tense)</u> if I knew the address
VII. Unreal condition referring to the past (Unreal and impossible) e.g.,	<u>Conditional perfect/past</u> I should have gone there, if I had known the address.	<u>Analytic subjunctive (=past perfect)</u>

2.13.3. Occasionally, various situations in contexts may also offer blends of conditional and pseudo-conditional clauses, - for the most part of real condition, but sometimes

hypothetical too, - which combine in a non-standard way with the main clause. We could call them "mixed" clauses in complex sentences and we must say that, like some of the non-typical conditional or apparently conditional clauses, they are not described by grammars (probably because they are considered unimportant, or because there are no restrictions in the utilization of tenses in them) :

e.g., If he has written the letter, he can leave/he will leave soon/he has probably left/he was a fool/he must have been forced to do so/he may always regret it/there was probably some reason for it, etc.

If he did it, he is a fool/he made a mistake/it means he (had) had no choice/I'll speak to him again/I certainly do not advise him to see me again/I'd rather not meet him again, etc.

2.13.4. Therefore, a sentence including a condition - real or unreal, possible or impossible, genuine or apparent - may appear in various forms, but ∇ taken all in all ∇ this rather heterogenous and intricate picture can be summarized as follows:

While three kinds of conditional clauses (real condition referring to the future, unreal condition referring to the present or future and unreal condition referring to the past) are subject to such constraints in English, French and other languages which differ from Romanian, etc. where freedom of logic is perfect, the other kinds of conditional clauses

(apparent, disguised, mixed, etc.) do not set any constraints on the speaker or writer, allowing him to apply the logic of the respective situational context.

2.14. Adverbial clauses of reason (causal or causative clauses) are naturally free from the constraints of the sequence of tenses because in any kind of logic the relation from cause to effect may be connected with a succession in time, but may also appear in another order. The fact for instance, that the cause of a past or present action may lie in the future is one more proof of the close connection between adverbial clauses of reason, of result and of purpose - because all these three notions are part and parcel of the same chain of motivation : external cause - internal cause / motive/purpose - result/effect.

e.g., I came here/I have come here because I had nothing to do at home.

I finished my translation last week because I was freer/because I have had some spare time during the past month/because I shall have to revise it before I am asked for it/because there is nothing I like more/because work has been rather slack for the last month or so/because I am going abroad next Monday. (Though the number of examples of sentences in which the justification of a past action lies in some future event is rather small, still those

given here are free from any element of purpose, a causative relation being obvious).

He made several paintings last autumn, because there is a national competition on the eve of 23rd of August. (In this case the purpose may be discerned : the painter intends to take part in the competition - but still we can consider the subordinate clause as causative).

2.15. The same reasoning can apply to adverbial clauses of result which naturally enjoy freedom in the arrangement of tenses because the relation cause-effect is not necessarily a temporal one. Still, cases in which the succession in time is inverted are even rarer than in the case of adverbial clauses of reason :

e.g., I was so tired/I had worked so much that I couldn't eat anything.

So much had he insisted, that I could not but accompany him on the trip.

There are at least 200 good books in the batch I am offered, so that I really don't know which to buy.

There will be so much to do during the summer, that you'd better take a holiday now. (This is an example of the conceivable appearance of the cause in the future and of the result in the present).

Unfortunately, I shall be unable to attend the wedding, so I am offering you my congratulations in advance (Ditto)

2.16. Adverbial clauses of purpose (final clauses) offer a more complicated picture, but it is rather a matter of the use of moods - in fact the subjunctive - and of various forms of the latter.

Actually there are the following situations :

(A) When the present perfect, the future, another tense in the group of the present, or the imperative are used in the main clause, in the subordinate clause of purpose we employ the analytic subjunctive with may or, more rarely, with will :

e.g., I'm going there/I'm doing it/I shall/will go there/I have done it so that I may help him.

(As a matter of fact, when the subjects of the two clauses are identical, it is preferable to employ the long infinitive, preceded or not by in order to - cf. the lecture on the complex sentence, the note under 2.16.1)

Put the book so that he may/will find it.

Tell me that I may take my big sword and slay him. (Oscar Wilde, The Selfish Giant)

(B) In the negative - that is when a negative purpose is expressed - one employs the conjunction lest or the conjunctional phrase for fear that (according to grammar books, preferred in conversation) followed by the analytic subjunctive

with should or would in the subordinate clause of purpose.

e.g., I left earlier, lest he should/would find me at home/(probably preferable) for fear that he should/would find me at home.

Lest you should think/For fear that you should think she was unprepared, I must tell you that she had the book with her. (The final clause appears also as a regent).

(C) When the past tense or the past perfect is used in the main or regent clause, in the subordinate final clause we use the analytic subjunctive with might or would.

e.g., He came here first thing in the morning so that he might/would find me alone.

I sent him the money by post so that he might/would receive it before my arrival.

(D) In the same situation, if negative purpose is implied, the conjunction lest or the conjunctive phrase for fear that are followed by the analytic subjunctive with should or would (very much as in case B).

e.g., He returned the book to the library yesterday for fear that he would be fined/lest he should be fined.

(E) In case the purpose is uncertain, doubtful, hypothetical, highly improbable, the analytic subjunctive with might is used even after the present, the imperative, etc. (everything listed under A) in the main clause.

e.g., Having despaired of finding him at home or at his office, I am going to visit his sister so that I might learn something about his whereabouts.

The firemen have done their best in order that they might save at least part of the goods.

(The chances were obviously small).

2.17. The introductory emphatic clause of the type It is he who did it etc. may be used not only in the present (the bulk of the examples) but also in the past tense, if logic requires us to do so.

e.g., It is Olivier's version that I prefer.

It was/It is (precisely) for this purpose that I went/that I had gone there.

It was only towards midnight that he returned home. (This being part of a narrative, the past tense is more justified in the "frame" clause as well though the use of "It is ..." is not mistaken).

2.18. Adverbial clauses of relation are not subject to the constraints of the sequence of tenses.

e.g., There was hardly any difficulty as far as books were/are concerned (The future would be illogical here).

As far as accommodation is/will be concerned,
I will see to it. (The past would be absurd)

2.19. Adverbial clauses of degree, measure, intensity, approximation, etc. are not affected by restrictions of mood and tense, because they have no temporal implications as a rule

e.g., He assisted me as much/as long as he could.

(Logic requires the past tense)

As he advanced with his work he realized its difficulty (Ditto)

2.20. Adverbial clauses of exception even more clearly evince their independence of sequence of tenses constraints :

e.g., I bought that wardrobe (yesterday), only/except that it will prove too bulky for my bedroom.

I liked it immensely, only/except that it takes/it took/it has taken/it would take/it will take an awful lot of time.

3.0. As has been seen from the detailed description of every type of subordinate clause, constraints on tenses proper have appeared only in those clauses in which temporal relations and considerations are significant, while the bulk of clauses being connected with other types of relations are free from such constraints.

On the other hand, constraints upon moods may appear in certain clauses, but ^{with} the exception of conditional sentences - most of them are confined to the uses of the various forms of subjunctive.

As the same happens in other languages as well, grammarians are inclined to discern here vestiges of the

oblique moods in Latin.

3.1. Therefore, what deludes learners and even teachers into ascribing an exaggerated importance to sequence of tenses constraints is the high frequency in conversation and texts of those clauses which do involve requirements and complications : direct object clauses, temporal clauses and conditional clauses

XVIII. DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH

o.1. When reproducing speeches or thoughts of other people - or even of one's own - from previous situations, contexts or written texts one may do it in two ways :

a) by direct quotation, for which English people use either the colon or the comma in front of the quotation marks. That is what has come to be called in all grammars "direct speech". (In Latin "oratio directa") ;

b) by using no special punctuation marks, but subordinate clauses - namely direct object clauses - which reproduce the quoted words either verbatim (word for word) or in a sort of summary. Whether we reproduce the exact speech/letter, etc. or its gist/essence, this is called "indirect speech", "reported speech" or "indirect style" (in Latin "oratio indirecta").

o.2. The transition from direct to indirect speech involves various requirements.

Some of these requirements or constraints are entailed by the very change in the speaker (therefore problems of person of the pronoun), in the time of the action (therefore the tense expressing the speech or letter) and in the location of the action (therefore changes in the circumstantial

elements, especially adverbial modifiers of place). Any deviation from these rules and constraints might lead to confusion or to lack of clarity, as to the speaker, the place or the moment of the action.

But apart from these general requirements - which are in fact due to general logic - present in the languages usually quoted in grammar books - there are specific requirements, mainly regarding tenses of the verb, which are subordinated to the rules of the sequence of tenses, in direct object clauses. These rules are no longer the same in all languages, and so, for English, special attention must be devoted to them.

Indirect Speech

1.0. In English grammar, indirect or reported speech is an important object of study because it is the main field of application of the rules of sequence of tenses - namely those governing the subordinate direct object clauses.

1.1. There are two preconceived ideas or prejudices which ought to be combated : (A) first there is the elementary mistake made by many people for whom indirect speech is the same thing as the sequence of tenses, though, as stated above as well as in the lecture on the sequence of tenses, this is just one of the domains where the latter's rules are materialized. (B) Secondly, the changes entailed by the transition to indirect speech do not affect tenses alone : these changes

refer mainly to morphology but also to syntax and to the vocabulary as well. For instance :

Direct Speech : He said : "Go away !"

Indirect Speech : He ordered me to go away.

D.S. : He asked me : "Are you coming ?"

I.S. : He asked me whether I was coming (or not).

D.S. : She was thinking : "Will he ring me
up tonight ?"

I.S. : She was wondering whether he would ring
her up that night.

1.2. Therefore, the changes in sentences brought about by the transition from direct to indirect speech will be analysed separately in the different fields.

2.0. Morphological changes. The changes affecting morphology normally involve the following parts of speech :

2.1. The adjective - namely the demonstrative and possessive adjectives.

2.1.1. Demonstrative adjectives denoting proximity (this, these) have to be changed into those denoting remoteness (that, those) whether they are part of phrases indicating location or temporal elements, because in English more especially demonstratives indicating proximity can only be used with reference to the "here and now", never for elements which are not present (in time or space).

e.g., Direct Speech : He wrote: "I am sending you
this view of this nice town

where I am now"

Indirect Speech : He wrote that he was sending me that view of that nice town, where he was then/at the moment/on that day. (Of course, in actual speech, people would avoid the repetitions which we used here on purpose)

2.1.2. Possessive adjectives naturally change in most cases with the change in the person of the subject, (though sometimes they remain the same, as specified below).

e.g., D.S.: He said : "My cousin doesn't agree"

I.S.: He said that his cousin didn't agree.

D.S.: Michael told me : "Her father has nothing against it".

I.S.: Michael told me that her father had nothing against it (Obviously, there is no reason for changing the possessive adjective, since the person involved has not changed).

D.S.: I said : "My opinion has not changed".

I.S.: I emphasized that my opinion had not changed in the least. (idem)

2.2. The pronouns are affected more substantially : personal, reflexive, emphatic, possessive and demonstrative pronouns do undergo the influence of indirect speech, whenever there is a change in person (cf. also 2.1.2).

2.2.1. Personal pronouns change more often, in fact also because they appear so frequently, being indispensable in both the main clause and the subordinate one :

e.g., D.S. Mary said : "I'm afraid I cannot stay any longer".

I.S. Mary said she was afraid she couldn't stay any longer.

D.S. Mary said : "He cannot come with us on the trip".

I.S. Mary said that he couldn't join us/them/ on the trip (depending on the persons involved).

2.2.2. Reflexive pronouns follow the same rule, whenever present :

e.g., D.S. Mother said: "I used to consider myself very happy".

I.S. Mother said she had been accustomed to consider(ing) herself very happy.

2.2.3. The same applies to emphatic pronouns :

e.g., D.S. John declared emphatically: "I myself have seen him there several times".

I.S. John declared rather emphatically that he himself had seen the other man there several times.

2.2.4. Naturally, possessive pronouns fall under the incidence of the same rule :

e.g., D.S. Father told mother : "These spectacles are not yours, they are mine".

I.S. Father explained to mother that those spectacles were not hers but his.

2.2.5. Demonstrative pronouns follow the same rules as demonstrative adjectives (cf. 2.1.1)

e.g., D.S. The teacher told us: "This is the lake famous for its hot water".

I.S. The teacher told us (that) that was the lake famous for its hot water (The subordinating conjunction that is often omitted in all sorts of cases, and more especially here, to avoid repetition ; nevertheless it should be borne in mind that when it does appear in front of the demonstrative pronoun that, it is distinguished from it by its unstressed, weak form, while demonstrative pronouns always have strong form and sentence stress).

2.3. Changes affecting the verb in fact refer to the tense of the verb, occasionally to mood (the imperative becomes an infinitive) or to the person of the verb.

2.3.1. Changes involving the tense of the verb are those specified in the lecture on the sequence of tenses, in the section devoted to direct object clauses (2.3).

These changes which occur only under the influence of a past tense, past perfect or of another tense or mood including an auxiliary in the past tense, can be described in two ways :

2.3.1.1. On the one hand, one can learn and teach these tense-shifts in an elementary, practical way, by a "rule-of-thumb" (= băbește): whenever there is one of the past tenses in the main clause - of the "he said" type - there is no possibility to use the present, the present perfect, the future, the near future or the future perfect in the direct object clause. In simple terms, this can be taught and learnt in the following way :

Any <u>arrives</u> , etc.	becomes <u>arrived</u> , etc
" <u>can</u>	" <u>could</u>
" <u>has</u>	" <u>had</u>
" <u>is</u> , etc.	" <u>was/were</u>
" <u>shall</u>	" <u>should</u>
" <u>will</u>	" <u>would</u>
" <u>may</u>	" <u>might</u>
" <u>must</u>	" <u>had to</u>
" <u>does</u> , etc.	" <u>did</u>

and so on and so forth.

2.3.1.2. To put it differently, this means that by changing the form of the auxiliary to have from the present to the past, we implicitly change the tense of the verb from the present perfect to the past perfect, by changing shall into

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should we change the future into the future in the past, by changing is, etc. into was, etc. we change the present into the past, and so on.

But we can in fact continue the list (as is done in the grammatical tables in the middle section of Dictionar de buzunar englez-român și român-englez by A.Bantaș) by actually showing, in the same elementary way that :

Any <u>arrived</u>	becomes	<u>had arrived</u>
<u>should arrive</u>	"	<u>should have arrived</u>
<u>has arrived</u>	"	<u>had arrived</u>
<u>shall/will arrive</u>	"	<u>should/would arrive</u>

and so on and so forth.

2.3.1.3. Note : There is however an exception : when the subjects of the main clause and of the direct object clause are identical (and especially in the first person singular), the verb must preserves its form :

e.g., I said (several times) that I must go.

He said he must read the book (less frequent).

x I said that he must do the job (rather rare,
not recommended by grammars - the correct form
being: "I said that he was/had to go")

2.3.1.4. The same matter is of course much more frequently explained theoretically, that is by stating which tense replaces another or what form is assumed by a certain tense of all verbs, under the influence of a past tense in the main clause.

This too is shown in the same section of the above-

mentioned dictionary as a table of all tenses of the indicative, namely :

1. <u>Present in-</u> <u>definite</u> I walk, etc.	2. <u>Past in-</u> <u>definite</u> I walked, etc.	5. <u>Future in-</u> <u>definite</u> I shall walk	6. <u>Future in</u> <u>the past</u> I should walk
1 bis <u>Present Conti-</u> <u>nuous</u> I'm walking	2 bis <u>Past Conti-</u> <u>nuous</u> I was walking	5 bis <u>Future Con-</u> <u>tinuous</u> I shall be walking	6 bis <u>Future Con-</u> <u>tinuous</u> I should be walking
3. <u>Present Perfect</u> I have walked	4. <u>Past Perfect</u> I had walked	7. <u>Future Perfect</u> I shall have walked	8. <u>Future Perfect</u> <u>in the Past</u> I should have walked
3 bis <u>Present Perfect</u> <u>Continuous</u> I have been walking	4 bis <u>Past Perfect</u> <u>Continuous</u> I had been walking	7 bis <u>Future Per-</u> <u>fect Con-</u> <u>tinuous</u> I shall have been walking	8 bis <u>Future Per-</u> <u>fect Conti-</u> <u>nuous in</u> <u>the Past</u> I should have been walking

Note 1 : Of course, the future perfect in the past and especially the future perfect continuous in the past occur very rarely in English (mainly because of the low frequency of the future perfect) but they find a place in this table for purposes of symmetry.

Note 2 : For transitive verbs, all these tenses are doubled by their passive counterparts.

2.3.1.5. It is easily noticed that the transition from direct to indirect speech is reflected on the plane of tenses of the indicative in a movement of translation/displacement clockwise, that is from left to right. This is

a graphic presentation which can be remembered easily and therefore can be taught at all levels (function of the number of tenses that are already known to the respective learners).

On the other hand, the symmetry of this table is marred by the fact that one of the tense-shifts involved by the sequence of tenses applied to indirect speech refers to the past tense. While the other tenses are arranged in two columns and the tense-shift represents a movement to the right-hand side column, the past tense descends one step on the scale, and so does the past continuous, turning into past perfect and past perfect continuous, respectively.

Note : In fact, as we notice, only two tenses of the notional verb are affected, and all the forms of the anomalous finites - responsible for the formation of the past perfect, of the analytic subjunctive, of the conditional, as well as of the modal future (in the past), etc.

2.3.2. Changes referring to the person of the verb in fact mainly regard the use of should for the first person singular and plural and of would for the second and third persons (sometimes involving a change as against shall/will in direct speech).

2.3.3. Changes in the mood of the verb occur mainly when the imperative in an independent sentence is reproduced in indirect speech. In such cases, it becomes an infinitive :

e.g., D.S. He said/He ordered/He told me: "Go there at once".

I.S. He told me/He ordered me/He said to me to go there at once.

D.S. "Sit down, please," she said.

I.S. She (kindly) invited me to sit down.

2.4. Changes affecting the adverbs or the adverbial modifiers refer mainly to those of definite time and to those of place.

2.4.1. Theoretically, it can be said that in most cases adverbial modifiers of definite time have to be adapted to the situational context when appearing in indirect speech (though there are situations in which they may remain unchanged as explained in the introduction to this lecture).

Proceeding as in the case of verbs (under 2.3.1.1) we can list the changes in the following elementary way.

Any	<u>now</u>	becomes	<u>then</u>
"	<u>today</u>	"	<u>that day</u>
"	<u>tomorrow</u>	"	<u>the next day</u>
"	<u>the next day</u>	"	<u>the following day</u>
"	<u>yesterday</u>	"	<u>the day before</u>
"	<u>the day before</u>		
	<u>yesterday</u>	"	<u>two days before</u>
"	<u>the day after</u>		
	<u>tomorrow</u>	"	<u>within two days ;</u>
			<u>two days later</u>

2.4.1.1. Moreover, we can formulate the rule that the whole series of adverbial phrases beginning with the word this

(this week, this month, this year, etc.) change into phrases beginning with that (that week, etc.)

Also, the series of adverbial phrases beginning with last (last week, etc.) or ending in ... ago (a month, etc. ago) turn into adverbial phrases ending in before (a fortnight, etc. before).

2.4.2. Adverbial modifiers of place are affected by the transition to indirect speech because of the idea that English people cannot use demonstrative or other elements showing proximity, except for "the here and the now" - that is for what is actually present, within reach of their senses.

Therefore, usually here becomes there, in this country/place etc. become in that country/place, etc.

2.5. Note : Of course, there are enough cases when changes in pronouns, adjectives, adverbial modifiers do not occur in indirect speech, because the reference is actually connected with "the here and the now". For instance :

D.S. He said yesterday : "I shall meet you in this very place tomorrow".

I.S. He said yesterday (that) he would meet me here/in this very place today.

D.S. He said on Sunday : "I shall return to this house on Tuesday".

I.S. He said on Sunday that he would return to this house today/tomorrow/on Tuesday (depending on circumstances).

3.0. Syntactical changes. Syntactical changes refer to two levels : on the one hand it is a matter of changing independent sentences (which may be declarative, interrogative, imperative or exclamatory) into subordinate direct object clauses, and on the other hand the changes are reflected inside this new clause in the arrangement of words in keeping with the rules for declarative sentences alone.

3.1. Declarative sentences become subordinate object clauses governed by such verbs as to tell, to say, to declare, to state, to insist (the last one also indicated for rendering imperative sentences), etc.

e.g., D.S. He said (peremptorily): "I want it done today".

I.S. He stated/said/insisted (that) he wanted the job done today/that day.

3.2. Interrogative sentences become direct object clauses following the verbs to ask, to inquire, to question, to wonder, and introduced by if or whether (the former general questions) or by who, which, what, why, when, where, etc. (the former special/particular questions).

e.g., D.S. He asked: "Is this true ?"

I.S. He asked/wondered whether it was true,
or

He questioned/doubted the truth of it(all).

D.S. She asked(me): "How is/How's your mother ?"

I.S. She asked(me) how mother was/felt/how you were/felt.

or

She inquired after mother's/your health/state.

3.3. Imperative sentences do not turn into clauses proper, but into infinitival constructions (cf. also 2.3.3) - either simple or of the type "accusative + infinitive".

e.g., D.S. "Bring the money tomorrow", he said.

I.S. He ordered me to bring the money the next day.

D.S. She begged me : "Do not leave".

I.S. She begged me not to leave her.

D.S. "Let me alone !" the child cried.

I.S. The child asked to be left alone. (The verb to let is not used with this sense in the passive voice).

Note : English grammars do not seem to adopt the notion and term of infinitival clause which is used in the grammar of other languages. On the other hand, some of the imperative sentences may turn into direct object clauses, after the verb to insist, to order, etc.

3.4. Exclamatory sentences turn into clauses following the verbs to exclaim, to shout, to cry (or, sometimes, periphrastic constructions).

e.g., D.S. "How nice !" he said.

I.S. He said cheerfully that he was delighted/
that it was very nice.

3.4.1. Greetings and wishes are rendered by the semantically related verbs :

e.g., D.S. He said : "Hello !" / "Good Morning !"

I.S. He greeted me/He welcomed us.

D.S. "Have a good time !" mother said.

I.S. Mother wished me (to have) a good time.

4.o. As is easily observed, most of the changes occurring^r in the transition from direct to indirect speech are only natural and occur in the logic / grammar of many languages, the main exceptions being formed by the applications of the sequence of tenses constraints.

XIX. FINAL REMARKS

o.1. One of the purposes of the present course of lectures has been that of facilitating a better utilization of the English language by students and other learners. The study of syntax is a higher stage in the learning of any language, yet it can achieve only small results if it is taken alone, deprived of its natural connections with morphology and stylistics, as well as with lexis and phonetics matter.

In fact, as has often been mentioned, a good knowledge of the language must involve the study of all chapters of linguistics.

o.2. One of the points that has occasionally been emphasized is the connection between words and their contexts. This has been the subject of many books and other scientific studies, which cannot be dwelt upon here. Nevertheless, it has to be said that certain words chosen out of synonymic pairs or groups may require specific contexts that are sometimes different from those entailed by the use of other words in the same chain or family of synonyms. Conversely, various types of contexts - especially broader ones (situational or even social) may condition or determine the choice of words.

On the other hand, in our opinion, the choice of the most expressive means in speech or writing, is conditioned not

only by such external factors as situational or social contexts, but also by subjective factors - of which modality is predominant.

0.3. This applies to grammar too. Out of various parallel forms - identical or similar in function and quite close to each other as far as semantic context is concerned - only one or perhaps two may be adequate for a certain context.

As a matter of fact, besides the stylistic implications that may lead to conflicts of congruence or to inadequacy (e.g. the use of familiar or highly colloquial forms in an official, formal situational context, or vice versa), there are also cases when the choice of certain constructions is conditioned by the limited, grammatical context (e.g. negative, restrictive, etc.)

Therefore, the interdependence between the lexical or grammatical units and the grammatical or broader contexts should guide the selection of synonymic means of expression.

1.0. It is our contention that synonymy can be viewed in broader terms - not only at the lexical level, but also in morphology in syntax. If we further extend this notion to include all kinds of variations in the expression given to the same semantic content, it becomes possible to assert that the diversity of form can be brought about by a special selection of words, of phrases, of idioms or - on the morphological plane - of verbal or other forms discharging similar functions and mutually interchangeable, or syntactical variants - ranging

from the frame (that is the difference between simple un-extended sentences up to complex sentences) to variations in the order of words, in the arrangement of clauses within the compound or complex sentences etc. Moreover, this must go hand in hand with suprasegmental phonetics, in order to achieve the effect desired.

Failing the general harmony of these means, blended in such a way as to match perfectly, the degree of expressiveness is reduced. Stylistic effects must rely on a good combination of all elements : speech is not expressive unless the intonation is good, bad punctuation may spoil or obscure the meaning of a text.

1.1. In our conception, synonymy could be a term applied to the whole scale of means of expression, in various domains, leading to similar or dissimilar results : ranging from monotony to great expressiveness, from positive to negative connotations. This variety of the forms of expression refers not only to the domain of the lexis to which it is usually applied, but also to grammatical forms and to phonetics (mainly suprasegmental).

As far as lexis is concerned, we are naturally interested in the synonymy of words, phrases and idioms, whose choice must be governed mainly by the relation with the respective narrow or broader contexts, as well as by the speaker's / writer's intention - therefore by modality. An intra-linguistic factor to be taken into account is collocability - the combinatorial possibilities or valences of various words.

Therefore, out of a synonymic series, words or phrases or even idioms have to be chosen, function of various factors: intrinsic - such as semantic features, emotional and stylistic implications, or connotations as well as extrinsic - the possibility of combining with certain elements of the context: implications of the second element of the collocation, register of the context, general trend of the text or situation, etc. It is easily noticed that all these elements are interdependent or at least inter-related : we cannot choose an adjective which is negative through its form or implication, in order to combine with a noun which is or which we mean to be positive, part of our favourable, laudatory attitude, or within a situational context which is supposed to be positive.

To take another example, scientific or hyperelevated words should not be used in familiar constructions - and by no means in sub-standard ones, in a grammar like that of pidgin English, etc. Vice-versa, dialectal or slang words for instance would be out of place within an emphatic context (to say nothing of its surprising effect when the pronunciation is also emphatic).

Perhaps one of the greatest dangers, as far as English is concerned, is to mix registers in vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation, regarding the differences between British and American usage.

1.2. At the purely morphological level, examples of synonymy would be provided by the various forms of the

genitive (for which, usage reigns supreme in matters of choice) the various forms of the future (in which both tenses and aspects are involved, with possible differentiations of nuances, sometimes involving unpleasant stylistic effects).

One of the most frequently mentioned problems is that of the parallel forms for the plural of foreign nouns : the utilization of the English plurals even for such nouns seems to be not so wrong or at least "defendable" ^Yas a linguist said, - whereas the utilization of a foreign plural may seem pretentious and - in case the form is incorrect - it is all the more blamable.

1.3. On the border between the lexical and the morphological planes lie interjections which may be used either as adjuvants of speech or as substitutes for it (particularly if we exclude onomatopoeias) and they also raise situational as well as stylistic problems. For instance, exclamations may render a message more expressive, or may epitomize it perfectly, on the other hand they may appear as irreverent or anyhow, lacking in politeness, perhaps for the very reason of their brevity which sounds like bluntness (not very much favoured by English people).

1.4. At the syntactical level, aspects of synonymy can be identified for instance in the possibilities for expressing ideas through the whole range of types of sentences - from one-member or elliptical sentences to compound or complex ones. (Which involves a similarly wide range of stylistic

implications, such as ellipsis, terseness, or, at the opposite end, redundancy, prolixity). Other syntactical aspects of synonymy are provided by the smaller or wider range of parallel forms in point of word order - inversion and emphasis being generally pointed out as more clearly related to modality.

2.0. This interdependence or interaction between words and contexts is often conditioned by one element that occurs in the study of morphology but has also been recurrent in our lectures on syntax : modality.

2.1. Without attempting to give a definition of modality (because the notion occurs in philosophy and has applications in various compartments of socio-linguistics) we have nevertheless employed it throughout as a sort of synonym for the speaker's/writer's attitude or behaviour.

In the lecture devoted to the simple sentences, one of the classifications - considered by us very important - gives the types of human thoughts grouped in keeping with the criterion of attitude or modality towards communication.

2.2. As stated there, most grammarians prefer to declare that the indicative mood does not denote any attitude/modality if there is no modal verb present - or, to put it differently, that the indicative mood is neutral. We, on the other hand, would prefer to accept the opposite view - namely that any human expression points to some modality or attitude : thus the indicative includes the attitude of assertiveness, because any statement presupposes some degree of certainty, assurance, etc.

(deviations from this rule being marked by the presence of restrictive or other adverbs, of independent elements qualifying the sentence - to say nothing of hesitant intonation also expressed graphically in special punctuation.

2.3. As was suggested occasionally (for instance in the lecture on inversion) modality may be subdivided into two broad types : intentional and unintentional. For instance, surprise, fear, disgust, etc. are subjective elements of an unintentional nature, - finding their expression in interjections and, generally speaking, in exclamatory sentences while wish, desire, passing criticism, advice or reproaches, expressing firm opinions or standpoints, are intentional (to a smaller or greater extent) finding their expression in assertive sentences, in statements as well as commands, etc. - therefore in declarative or imperative sentences. On the other hand, curiosity is more or less on the border between intentional and unintentional and, as a matter of fact, it may also differ in degree, therefore employing variations on the patterns of interrogative sentences.

All this normally finds its specific expression in utterances - therefore having specific requirements in suprasegmental phonetics.

3.0. If we connect two of the key words mentioned repeatedly in various parts of the course and in this very lecture - modality and synonymy - this could also be justified by the fact that one can safely speak about a very extensive

synonymy of modality.

3.1. As we noticed on various occasions, if we bring together under the heading of modality all human attitudes which find expression in communication (intentionally or unintentionally) we can identify a very large number of modalities - further increased or extended if we subdivide them into nuances : emphasis and insistence, probability (possibly subdivided into greater or smaller), possibility, impossibility, necessity (subdivided into external/objective and internal/subjective), obligation (subdivided into coercitive and non-coercitive - possibly subdivided further into "moral" or deriving from some arrangement - sometimes assimilated with great probability), freedom (that is non-obligation or the absence of necessity), permission (and its opposite interdiction), ability (possibly subdivided into physical, intellectual, moral and even "capacity depending on external factors"), advisability, desirability, wish, volition, reproachfulness, regret, etc. and, last but not least, certainty (possibly supplemented by conviction).

3.2. On the other hand, here we come right to the crux of the matter - the conflict between the conception that the indicative mood used for statements denotes the absence of any modality, and the broader conception, discerning modality in any message : certainty or conviction even in the most final/categorical statement (when other modalities such as probability, possibility, etc. are not expressed by adverbs or

other means), curiosity (in several degrees or variants) in any question, and of course, various modalities in imperative sentences, and an almost limitless range of modalities or nuances in exclamatory ones.

3.3. The range of means for expressing modality seems to be equally wide : on the lexical plane there are various adverbs and other modal words ;

- on the morphological plane, there are the moods (not so the non-finite forms of the verbs, perhaps with the exception of the infinitive which may imply purpose as a reduced form of "in order to" or as a remnant from earlier forms of English), modal verbs, modal phrases, interjections (perhaps also susceptible of interpretation as lexical means or as stylistic means) ;

- on the syntactical level, parenthetical and independent words ;

- on the stylistic plane various stylistic devices and figures of speech ;

- on the plane of suprasegmental phonetics intonation (the utilization of various tones with many nuances too) as well as of certain sentence-stress or rhythmical patterns.

4.0. As a matter of fact, all these problems may be further enlarged upon, which has been done to a great extent in various chapters of grammar.

4.1. As far as phonetics is concerned - in close connection with style and rather inseparable from grammar -

it is absolutely certain that viewed in those terms of interdependence of the chapters of linguistics - phonetics displays many aspects of modality. The grammatical as well as stylistic context may influence such aspects of speech as : the utilization of strong forms (in dictation, particularly ex cathedra, in public oratory, on stage, etc.) instead of the weak or contracted ones (mainly colloquial); the use of emphatic pronunciation as individual mannerism, as part of a professional "code" or in a certain situational context (intentionally or under the stress of some emotion); differences in word-stress (in much the same way or within similar trends); differences in sentence-stress (mainly from purposes of emphasis - intentional or emotional) ; differences in pitch (the utilization of the upper or lower emphatic or emotional ranges in particular segments of speech); differences in rhythm (again purposeful or determined by the stress of circumstances, emotions, etc.) ; differences in the use of tones (for instance the utilization of perfunctory tones - intentional or unwilling - neutralizing or reversing the effect of a statement, question, etc.; the utilization of the high-level tone - therefore neutral - just meant to call attention without conveying any semantic information, etc.)

5.o. Many of the means of expression - and consequently many of the modalities inherent or explicit in them - can be either supplemented or even epitomized/replaced by gestures.

5.1. As a matter of fact, certain gestures may be considered an even more concise form of expression than interjections - manifesting disgust, admiration, enthusiasm, horror, praise of excellence, satisfaction, gratification of various desires or needs, etc.

On the other hand, as is easily noticed, certain gestures - by which we also understand movements of the body, besides the usual motions of the hands - can complete, round off or render more expressive the suggestions of normal or exceptional intonation (which, in its turn, is an indispensable means of rendering the message effective).

5.2. Moreover, if on the one hand we analyse the totality of the human actions which contribute to conveying a certain message, and on the other hand we think of what can facilitate the learning of certain intonational patterns, we can see that the assimilation of the latter may rely on the adoption of the adequate gestures (provided they correspond to what English people or other native speakers of a language do as a matter of habit or custom) : raising one's head or at least eyebrows and widening one's eyes in order to express the genuine curiosity conveyed by High Rise (Tone I High) in uttering general questions ; a shrug of the shoulders - of various intensities - perhaps accompanied by a neutral or indifferent position of the lips for an utterance using Low Rise (Tone I Low) that is a statement, question, imperative, etc. of a perfunctory nature, therefore conveying or suggesting the speaker's lack of

participation or emotional involvement in the respective matter or even in the conversation as a whole ; a lowering of the hand (usually the right one), of large amplitude but of moderate intensity, accompanying the Fall tone (Tone II) indicates finality in a categorical, positive statement, in a normal command, request, farewell or even welcome, as well as in a particular/special/wh-question (all of them of a straightforward nature, without any implications - either positive, in the nature of cordiality, or negative, in some way or another); the same gesture, intensified in swiftness or amplitude - perhaps even changed into banging on the table, etc. or into a repeated, menacing one, may accompany High Fall (Tone II High) in emphatic commands or statements ; a slow, benevolent or humble lowering of one's head, not only facilitates the delivery of statements, apologies, requests, etc. in Fall Rise (Tone III) but also better conveys the pliancy, modesty, humility or the other connotations of this essentially implicatory tone : hesitation, uncertainty, insincerity, or, on the contrary, cordiality ; a raising and immediate lowering of one's head should come natural - or as an adjuvant - in exclamations of various natures, certainly being helpful in illustrating the feelings, the emotional participation of the various types of exclamations that require or entail the utilization of Rise Fall (Tone IV); last but not least, the repeated nod (characterizing Rise-Fall-Rise - that is Tone V -) facilitates the conveyance of cordiality in farewells, exclamations, or perhaps even

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statements, while a slightly more emphatic movement of a similar nature may convey the insinuations or other implications meant by the speaker when utilizing this tone.

6.0. Style - especially in its lato sensu acceptation prevalent in English - seems to be on a plane higher than all these elements, subordinating them all. Therefore, if we apply the notion to texts alone, there is a consensus about its involving a perfect selection of words, correct morphology, syntax and punctuation, in order to secure a perfectly solid context fitting the respective literary production.

6.1. On the other hand, if we refer to speech as well, stylistic refinement or perfection (which in this particular case we should like to consider the superior stage of expressiveness) presupposes the same elements - punctuation, however, being replaced by intonation (as a sort of general term for suprasegmental phonetics).

Negative examples could illustrate the matter : it is useless to resort to a refined vocabulary, to metaphors, etc. if sentences lack balance, clarity, grammatical correctness or adequate punctuation. On the plane of speech, wrong intonation (flat, neutral, dry, impolite, etc.) can spoil the effect of a wonderfully arranged piece of communication, sometimes leading even to undesirable effects.

6.2. Taken all in all, the correct use of a precise vocabulary, of morphological forms, of syntactical structures must be matched by careful pronunciation and clear delivery

as well as by a dignified attitude and appropriately moderate gestures in formal speech ; conversely, a colourful colloquial vocabulary, together with familiar, informal grammatical forms and structures, casual pronunciation, emotional expressive intonation and emotional gestures are much more appropriate for everyday conversation, and so on and so forth.

7.0. If some conclusions should be drawn from the present lectures, they could be summarized in a few key-words :

7.1. - Synonymy on several planes should lead us to elasticity and pliancy, that is to an awareness of the multiplicity of possible solutions ;

- Adequacy to the context should be one of our main concerns - leading to congruence with the respective code (or style) ;

- Permanent investigation (judgement in the light of the judiciously selected reference works but especially of logic, of personal observation) regarding the realities of the contemporary language, that is of texts and speeches which reflect the supreme arbiter of correctness : usage.

- A comprehensive approach to all linguistic facts and factors seen in their interdependence and interaction;

- Adding to all this the psychological (intellective and emotional) facet brought in by modality we shall be guided towards consummation : expressive speech and writing.

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